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ABSTRACT

Participants in the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE)/Institute for Research on Teaching (IRT) Summer Workshop on "Quality Assurance in Teacher Education: Research Into Practice," attended sessions on higher education and took part in workshops focusing on research on teaching. The ATE presented 32 sessions reviewing current developments in teacher education. The sessions were grouped around four themes: (1) teacher candidate selection and evaluation; (2) preservice teacher education content, organization, and field experience; (3) building bridges between colleges and school districts; and (4) professional staff development. The IRT sponsored four day-long research-into-practice workshops, one each on the learner, the teacher, subject matter, and instructional settings. This booklet contains edited versions of the three major addresses presented at the conference, and brief summaries of the small group presentations and IRT workshops. The major addresses dealt with the impact of educational research, the effectiveness of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), and reactions to a National Education Association report on professional development. (JD)

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ED219378

QUALITY ASSURANCE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

PROCEEDINGS OF THE 1981 SUMMER WORKSHOP

THE ASSOCIATION OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

Held in cooperation with
The Institute for Research on Teaching

Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan
August 2-5, 1981

SP 020 578

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FOREWORD

The 1981 Summer Workshop of the Association of Teacher Educators was sponsored jointly by ATE and the Institute for Research on Teaching at Michigan State University. Workshop planning was under the general direction of Robert Roth of the Michigan Department of Education (and ATE President-elect). The overall theme for the workshop was "Quality Assurance in Teacher Education: Research into Practice." The opening session for all participants Sunday evening featured Robert M.W. Travers, editor of the Second Handbook of Research on Teaching. This was followed by two days of smaller group meetings. Participants met either with selected IRT staff members to focus on translating current research on teaching into practice, or attended a series of presentations focused on assurance of quality in four areas of teacher education:

Teacher Candidate Selection and Evaluation
Preservice Teacher Education Content, Organization and Field Experiences
Building Bridges Between Colleges and School Districts
Professional Staff Development.

A report on the recent IRT study of NCATE given by the study's author, Chris Wheeler, was presented Wednesday morning, concurrently with a Teacher Fair which highlighted several classroom teacher designed programs. The workshop then concluded with the discussion of a draft of the National Education Association's position paper on teacher education.

This booklet of proceedings is being published as a service to workshop participants and to the profession. It contains reports on the three general sessions and on the small group sessions.

The article by Prof. Travers is a reproduction of the paper from which he spoke at the workshop, which he kindly provided to us at our request. We are indebted to Stephen Taffee of North Dakota State University for providing us with his recordings of the Wednesday morning presentations. In order to conserve space in the publication, we condensed each of these 1 1/2 hour presentations to about four pages, submitting these condensed versions to the respective speakers for their approval and/or revision prior to publication.

Small group presentations were solicited nationally. This section of the proceedings is introduced by the prompting questions for each of the subthemes which were included in the Call for Program Proposals. The thirty-one presentations included in the program were selected by evaluators working under the direction of Jean Easterly. Each principal presenter was requested to submit a 500-word summary for inclusion in these proceedings. Many found it difficult to adequately summarize their presentations so concisely. We assume that many of them would be happy to respond to readers' requests for further elaboration. The proceedings conclude with a summary of the IRT small group sessions.

The camera-ready format of this publication was selected to minimize the cost of production.

Jean Easterly, Oakland University, Rochester, MI
Donald Steer, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI

THE MAGIC OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Robert M.W. Travers
Distinguished Professor, Western Michigan University

The title of this paper needs explanation in that the word magic has many meanings. The word was originally introduced into the title to convey the idea that the educational researcher is, like the stage magician, a creator of illusions. The greatest illusion created by the educational research worker is that he is engaged in the production of knowledge that can provide immediate guidance to decision makers. But the term magic also has, among its meanings, the idea of a phenomenon that is remarkable, extraordinary, and perhaps even completely unexpected. Some research related to education does seem to have this magical effect, and manages to transform education in remarkable and extraordinary ways. There is illusion involved in this form of magic that produces great and worthwhile changes in education. The latter is rare magic for much of educational research undertaken today, and most of that sponsored by the Federal government, creates illusions rather than knowledge. Let us begin by considering how these illusions are created. In doing this, some of the secrets of the stage magic of educational research will be revealed, and how such powerful illusions are produced that the Congress each year votes millions to support the enterprise. Let us follow this analysis with a look at aspects of education research which create the real magic of slowly transforming education.

The Creation of Illusions by Research Workers, Administrators and Research Entrepreneurs

The art of creating illusions, as an activity of the educational research enterprise, is a relatively new endeavor. The illusions created today derive largely from the sleight of hand of Federal legislators and the Washington Bureaucracy, often aided and abetted by eminent politicians of the academic world who, together, may form a private magic club. The secret of the illusions they produce is found in the name given to proposed research projects. A name created in Washington has to have the correct ring if it is to receive budgetary support. The name has to convey the thought that an activity of great social importance is to be undertaken, and little concern is shown for whether the art of educational inquiry has, or has not, reached the point that permits the research to be undertaken. The title of the research has to give the illusion that it is designed to solve some problems of great importance. Those who dream up such enterprises on the Washington scene are completely taken in by the illusion and the enterprise is promoted with energy and fervor.

There is nothing new in this kind of birth of an illusion. Administrators have been doing it for perhaps thousands of years. Rulers and administrators of the middle ages created similar illusions when they employed alchemists to develop methods of turning lead into gold. The solution to the problem obviously had immense significance to rulers, and the alchemists who attempted to solve the problem earned a living and even came to believe that the problem was soluble. One may note that the work involved in this pursuit produced virtually no knowledge of any

kind and, indeed, many able minds were probably distracted from more useful pursuits by participating in the illusion that they were engaged in a worthwhile scholarly enterprise.

The Washington scene is not too different from the palace of the middle ages. The Washington establishment shares with its medieval ancestors the belief that the scholars of the age should be preoccupied with what the government sees to be the great problems that need to be solved, regardless of whether the problems can, or cannot, be solved at this time. The problems thus identified by the government always have seductively attractive titles in all fields of endeavor. Thus it is easy for the Congress to introduce legislation requiring that research be undertaken to ensure that every drug marketed is safe, even though the scientific community knows that there is no way of determining whether a drug is completely safe, since hazardous effects may not appear for 30 or more years and in subsequent generations.

Let us take a look at some of the educational enterprises that have emerged from the Washington scene. An excellent example is the long array of legislative requirements that educational programs be evaluated to determine whether or not further Federal funds should be invested in them. The intent of the legislation is worthy and provides the illusion that something of great worth is being sponsored. These legislative provisions have resulted in a surge of activity related to the evaluation of education, an enterprise that had been supported with enthusiasm during the 1930s, but which had died a natural death in about 1940 because it had failed to produce findings of any consequence. The revival of the evaluation enterprise in the 1970s was entirely a result of Federal action which legislated the academic enterprise into life again. No voice was raised to protest the kind of activity that the Congress funded, for the tendency of academicians was to participate in the illusions of Washington. Like the story of the emperor's clothes, nobody shouted that the emperor had no clothes nor that the proposed evaluation enterprises could not produce useful results. The illusion was complete that the emperor really had clothes and the evaluation programs had substance. The presence of federal funds can support illusions in a way that seems to give them reality. Also, it is bad politics to criticize the way in which the government distributes funds, for the critic may well find himself cut off from funds as punishment for voicing criticism.

Money creates the illusion that a project has worth, and academicians have long been duped by money into believing that some of their enterprises have a worth that they really do not have. One suspects that many of the alchemists really did not believe that the base metals could be converted into gold, but what did it matter so long as the sponsor thought that this was possible. Nevertheless there are some within the evaluation enterprise who are uneasy about what they are doing, and a whole literature exists deploring the fact that Federally sponsored evaluation studies do not seem to influence practical decisions and, probably, should not. Evaluations of some kind, often based on quite unsystematic observation do influence decisions related to education to a minor degree, though most major educational decisions are made on the basis of legal considerations or considerations of practical politics, rather than on the basis of systematic observation. Let us turn now to the reasons why evaluation, as it has been conceived in Federal legislation, must remain

as part of an illusion rather than an influential reality.

A first fact that has to be considered in viewing the evaluation enterprise is that most studies conducted for the first time in the behavioral sciences produce results that cannot be replicated. The successful research worker in the behavioral sciences is one who is able to develop a framework of replicable studies. Many fascinating areas of research in the behavioral sciences have had to be abandoned because they do not provide situations in which studies produce replicable results. All too often a fascinating first study produces results that motivate young research workers, all over the world, to engage in similar studies, with a resulting chaos of inconsistent findings, which cannot be put together in any meaningful way. Eventually the new area of inquiry is abandoned, and the research workers go back to extending knowledge in some area in which research has already shown that replicable studies can be undertaken. Such difficulties, encountered by the behavioral research scientist, have not deterred the evaluation worker from conducting inquiries for the first time, in new areas, and then proposing that the results be used in the making of important policy decisions.

Most evaluation studies are one-time affairs. Since no effort is made to discover whether the results are replicable, the results must be considered to have little practical utility. Since one cannot trust the results of a single study in the behavioral sciences, studies conducted for the first time as most evaluation studies are, should not be used to influence practical decisions. What knowledge can one then trust as a basis for decision making? The knowledge in the behavioral sciences to which one can turn is that knowledge which is well-established, well-organized, and relevant for making the particular decision at hand. The knowledge should be near to the issue at hand and not a set of remote generalizations based on the behavior of rats and pigeons. Thus the knowledge related to our understanding of reading derives largely from studies of human perception and not from studies of the perception of rats, or even subhuman primates. Studies of perception related to reading have a high degree of replicability, and have replicable conclusions, but studies of reading methods do not have this property, and are virtually worthless for guiding policy making. Before one attempts to apply what some believe to be knowledge, one has to ask the question of whether there is a real body of knowledge and whether a prudent scientist would consider the knowledge relevant. An appropriate relationship has to exist between research and the situations in which the research is to be applied, before the research should ever be used. Federally sponsored programs of educational research rarely have built into them the prudent scientist criterion in matters related to their applicability. Most so-called practical education research thus sponsored is utterly impractical.

A second major difficulty in the development of the evaluation enterprise is that the techniques of evaluating educational programs have not really improved over the last 40 years. The very core of most evaluation studies in education involves the classification of behavior, the determination of the effect of the educational program on the frequency of the behaviors in each category, and the making of some value judgment concerning the worth of the changes. This core process calls for know-

ledge in two areas where ignorance prevails. These are the areas of the classification of behavior and the making of value judgments. Our classifications of behavior, with a few exceptions, are more like the inventories of stores than like anything that might be called a scientific classification. Also at the core of the evaluation process is the making of value judgments. There is a total lack of knowledge among evaluators about the matter of how value judgments can be or should be made, and the issues involved are rarely even mentioned. The result is that, in most evaluation studies of educational enterprises, behaviors are classified with the scientific sophistication of a store manager, and value judgments are made at the level of profundity of a lady buying a hat or a man purchasing a tie. Until there is much more systematic thought undertaken about the basic problems of classifying behavior and the making of value judgments, practical evaluation studies will remain at an extremely primitive level.

One may note no great trend towards the development of knowledge related to evaluation. The most widely cited publications in the field relate to such other matters as the development of what are called models of evaluation, which are not models in a scientific sense, but administrative procedures, providing blueprints for undertaking evaluation studies. There has also been a proliferation of new vocabulary with the emergence of such terms as formative evaluation, summative evaluation, metaevaluation, and other specialized terms. One has only to leaf through the pages of the Handbook of Evaluation Research (1975) to see the extraordinary proliferation of vocabulary that has characterized the field. Indeed, vocabulary building has become almost a substitute for the orderly building of knowledge.

The picture painted of current evaluation, as sponsored by the Federal government, may appear to be a little bleak. The problem is not that research related to evaluation should be stopped, but that it should be expanded to develop the knowledge and tools needed to undertake real evaluation studies. More, not less, money needs to be funneled into the area, but the money has to be freed from the ridiculous purposes that the Congress imposes at this time. Perhaps the Congress has to overcome the illusion that one can conduct a simple study and discover the merits of an educational program. Simple formulae, that seem to provide simple solutions to very complex problems, are the bane of Federally sponsored research in the field of education.

The gross defects of Federally sponsored research in education cannot be blamed entirely on the Congress nor on the Federal bureaucracy. There is ample blame to provide academicians, state officials, and school and college administrators with an ample share. In order to illustrate this point, let us turn to what is probably the largest single educational research project ever funded. The project is the so called National Assessment of Educational Progress, which up to this time has probably consumed more than 20 million dollars of Federal funds, and several million dollars from other sources. Despite the enormous amount of money spent on this enterprise, one has a hard time in discovering any findings of consequence. This is to be contrasted with John Flanagan's aptitude survey which has produced results of interest and importance on a rather smaller budget. Although the reasons are fairly obvious why the National Assessment project cannot produce results of any

interest or consequence, the project continues to receive substantial support, for reasons which need to be considered.

Of the greatest importance in the development of support for the project was the title. The title provides the illusion that an activity of the greatest national importance is being embraced. The words National and Progress certainly have done much to make the project acceptable to almost anybody in Washington. The title also implies that the project is going to measure progress on a national scale and perhaps even discover what makes for national progress or lack of progress. The title also seems to carry the implication that there are easily applied methods of discovering how much progress is being made, and that simple methods are available for carrying out the plan in the title. All of this illusionary confidence in the worth of the enterprise and the capability of carrying it out would not have been, if the project had had some title such as An Exploration of Measuring Year-to-Year Changes in Educational Achievement. No! The magic of the words National and Progress have to be there to create the illusion produced by the title.

A project which has spent sums of the order of 20 to 30 millions would be expected to produce important results, but nobody asks to see the results produced by National Assessment of Educational Progress. The illusions of worth produced by the title are sufficient to produce the binding spell that the project is of vast significance. The fact is, of course, that the findings of the enterprise to date are of trivial dimensions and inconsequential significance, and still the project is likely to be funded for years to come. The illusion created by the project does not shatter easily. Mere lack of significant findings has little influence on its future.

The enterprise seems to have been designed in total ignorance of the knowledge available in the behavioral sciences, and also a quite general ignorance of what is known about overall changes in national achievement over the years. Evidence, for example, from the Boston Survey of 1845 that was repeated in 1920 shows small, but positive, increases in achievement over the 75 year span. Surveys of reading achievement, over long periods, in the present century, also show the extraordinary small changes that occur over decades. If homework had been properly done before the grandiose National Assessment program had been established, funds would never have been given for it. No reasonable member of Congress would vote money for an enterprise that could show only miniscule changes.

There is also a much more general defect of the entire enterprise that anybody familiar with research in the behavioral sciences can readily identify. This basic defect is that there is virtually no way of relating the small changes that may occur in national achievement to specific causes. Year to year changes are probably quite unreliable in the sense that they do not show trends, and what real changes that do exist are related to a large number of unidentified causes. Thus National Assessment produces data showing miniscule changes from year to year and changes that cannot be related to any particular set of causes. Behavioral research that does only that is virtually worthless and, indeed, would not be undertaken by anybody with any sophistication in the behavioral sciences. The project suffers from not having had proper input

from behavioral scientists, and a heavy emphasis in the design from statisticians who often have little familiarity with the basic problems of developing theories of behavior.

There are of course areas in which some kind of national assessment is worthwhile. There is merit in computing the GNP index, for the gross national product shows considerable fluctuations even over as short a time as a quarter. Also, there is considerable knowledge about some of the factors that account for the large fluctuations in the GNP, and some steps can be taken to deliberately manipulate the GNP up and down. Even though our capacity to control a total economy is limited, there are still some steps that can be taken that can be used to control not only declines, but also an overheated economy. The computation of the GNP has immensely practical significance, even though economists do not always agree upon the best methods of controlling or producing changes in it.

In contrast, failure is inevitable in any attempt to ascribe causes to the relatively miniscule ups and downs in the level of achievement discovered through the costly and complex procedures developed by the statisticians who planned the National Assessment of Educational Progress. About all one can do is to cheer when the levels rise and wring one's hands when the levels decline. Any behavioral scientist could have told the planners of the enterprise that this would be the final outcome of the National Assessment enterprise. The point must be reemphasized here, because a later section of the paper will return to the matter, that the great weakness of National Assessment lies in the lack of role given to behavioral scientists in its planning, which was undertaken largely by statisticians and test technicians.

The enterprises discussed to this point show that the political pressures are such that research for the past 15 years has been dominated by the illusions created by politicians and academicians. This is one of the facts of life that most educational research workers may have to accept. At least a part of the reason for this perpetuation of a stage show atmosphere is that the top overseeing committee of the educational research enterprise, at the Federal level, has been, throughout the last decade, a committee of individuals who, with only a few exceptions, have had no knowledge of educational research. Members of the committee were typically college presidents and other very high level educational administrators, all admirable people in their fields, but lacking in any real knowledge concerning what research can, and cannot, contribute to education. Throughout most of this period the committee has included a token research worker, whose sole presence reflected the low opinion held concerning the worth of the judgments of research workers in general. Such a committee was readily manipulated by the Washington bureaucracy, when it presented to the committee the proposals with illusions of potential for magnificent advance in educational practice. One suspects that there was strong pressure both from the Federal government, and from some academicians who sought power for themselves, to keep the supervisory committee as inadequate as possible. The inadequacy of the committee made it possible for influential individuals to slip through whatever enterprises pleased their fancy. All that had to be done was to create the appropriate illusion of relevance. The committee could do little else but rubber stamp proposals with approval.

A critic of what has been written here might well argue that just two enterprises were selected to show how illusions are created in the field of educational research, but surely there is much Federally sponsored educational research that truly builds important and relevant knowledge. Undoubtedly there is some, but one can easily demonstrate the scarcity of such enterprises. All one has to do to demonstrate the extraordinary ineffectiveness of Federal programs of educational research is to conduct a computer search of the ERIC system. A search of the system, based on any particular descriptor, reveals a hodgepodge of research, typically with a diversity of often inconsistent conclusions. The mass of material rarely, if ever, shows a slow growth in organized knowledge about a problem. A promising idea, here and there, rarely has a replication of the research on which it is based, to find out whether the initial findings can be duplicated, and yet a major criterion of whether an area of research is worth pursuing is whether one can identify reproducible phenomena. The material in ERIC represents not so much a slow and steady accumulation of knowledge as it does the year to year whims and fancies of the politicians, often pandered to by academicians and educators. The Regional Laboratories and Research Centers, which offered some hope that we would not have to drift, hither and thither, with every gust of political wind, have been particularly influenced by every gust.

Yet one can look through the titles of the entries in the ERIC system and be swept up in the illusion that inquiry of immense significance is in progress. Almost every title reflects a problem of the deepest social importance, and the illusion that an activity of the greatest social consequence is reflected in the enterprise can easily sweep one away into a dream world in which there are vast, but imaginary, developments in education.

What has been said does not imply that the studies were not, for the most part, well executed. The statistical design was at least adequate. What the studies lacked was any structure that showed a gradual and inexorable building of knowledge. Without such a building of knowledge, the various studies may be no more than will-o-the-wisps, which give only the illusion of shedding light, because they are not a part of a more substantial contribution to knowledge.

The Real Magic of Educational Research

Despite the rather cynical remarks of the first part of this paper, educational research does possess a certain degree of real magic. One cannot see this real magic when one is close to it. In order to explain this point, the magic of educational research lies in its capacity to transform our entire concept of the nature of the child and the way in which children learn. This transformation occurs slowly and subtly, not through some 30 million dollar project sponsored by the Federal Government, but by the slow and persistent building of knowledge, often over generations.

By example of such an organized body of knowledge, closely related to education, that has developed over a long period is that related to the acquisition of mathematical knowledge by children. Interest in the

area goes back 200 years, with the development by Johann Friederich Herbart of the idea that the teaching of a school subject could be undertaken effectively only after the psychology of the learning of the school subject was thoroughly understood. Herbart did not believe that an experimental psychology of the learning of a school subject was possible, but attempted to develop an analytic mathematical psychology to fill the gap created by the absence of a genuine experimental psychology. His mathematical psychology was ingenious but unproductive. Yet the idea of a psychology of the learning of a particular subject matter field was to engage the interests of at least some psychologists over the next two centuries. Herbart attempted to apply his methods of analytic psychology to the teaching of elementary mathematics, and was the first to point out that early mathematical concepts are directly related to perception, and should be so linked by the teacher. His attempts to develop a psychology of the learning of higher mathematics, and particularly trigonometry, was not particularly impressive, and yet the idea was impressive. One should note in this connection, that the tie which Herbart made between sense perception and the learning of elementary mathematics had been enhanced by his visit to Pestalozzi's school in rural Switzerland.

Herbart's dream of a psychology of school subjects required a more substantial basis than his analytic psychology, though the analytic component was still to be an important one. What were needed were techniques for studying how children learn the concepts, and operations related to the mastery of particular bodies of knowledge.

The development of a psychology of the learning of mathematics, that Herbart had envisaged, could not emerge until empirical methods for the study of learning in children had been developed. These new methods did not appear until after the middle of the nineteenth century, and required another half century of work before they began to yield knowledge of any consequence. The earliest studies of the development of concepts in children were undertaken in Jena in the late 1860s, and were further developed under the direction of G. Stanley Hall in the 1890 to 1910 period. These enterprises lay at the very heart of what was then called the child-study movement. The new child-study techniques provided the means of achieving the Herbartian dream of a psychology of how children learn in a discipline. Extensive work was undertaken within the child-study movement concerning the way in which children acquired mathematical concepts. These were summarized in an article by Phillips (1897), which was later cited by Piaget as one of the links of his work with the past.

The kind of work that Phillips reported on the development of number concepts in children could not have been undertaken without the magnificent analyses that had been made of the nature of mathematics and how the structure of mathematical knowledge had to be considered in designing teaching practices. Two particularly notable analytic works had appeared during the nineteenth century on the teaching of mathematics. One of these was Charles Davies' classic work entitled The Logic and Utility of Mathematics, with the Best Methods of Instruction Explained and Illustrated (1850). This book outlined what have later come to be considered the essential concepts of mathematics, including the concept of order. In many respects the Davies work is an attempt to do what the

Bourbaki mathematicians later attempted to do, namely, to identify the basic concepts common to all mathematics. Davies was an outstanding mathematician, well trained to undertake the task, but one has to remember that he lived in an age when little was even known about such fundamental mathematical matters as the nature of proof. The other work which influenced all subsequent research related to how children learn mathematics was a book by James A. McLellan and John Dewey (1895) entitled The Psychology of Number. This book seems to come in direct lineage with the Herbartian speculations concerning the learning of mathematics, in that it develops the relationship of number concepts to experience. Davies had not been able to do this, perhaps because he had little contact with the developing sensory psychology of his century. Dewey must have been well aware of what was then the new trend in psychology, which related learning to biological adaptations to the environment.

The works of Davies and McLellan and Dewey must have had enormous influence on all the early studies undertaken related to how children acquire mathematical concepts. If one judges the studies by the review provided by Phillips, one is impressed not so much with the results achieved by these early studies, but by their variety. Many were concerned with children making judgments of numerosity, as when the children listened to a number of clicks and were asked to judge how many clicks they had heard. This technique, derived from German psychophysics, was used, without discovering much of interest for half a century. Another technique involved interviewing teachers and parents concerning the age at which children had manifested some kind of numerical sense. There was even an interest in whether animals could distinguish different quantities. The rich exploration of different techniques for studying the basis of mathematics learning must have been of great value to later workers, who were able to obtain clues concerning which techniques might be productive. When Piaget later came to explore the acquisition of mathematical understanding he acknowledged the contribution of Phillips, as the summarizer of the work of the last century, and McLellan and Dewey as the important theorizers of the same era.

Piaget was able to bring together the analysis that individuals such as Davies, McLellan and Dewey had undertaken, and to use the ideas as a basis for inquiry into the study of the development of the concept of number in children. Piaget was also aware of the formidable analysis of the nature of mathematics undertaken by Russell and Whitehead, which enabled him to see mathematics as a particular case of logical thinking.

Armed with this rich background concerning the nature of mathematics, Piaget was able to view the development of mathematical capability as a part of the logical development of the child. He had already gone far towards developing a quite complete description of the way in which the human developed as a logical system. In doing this he had borrowed extensively from the work of Mark Baldwin who first introduced psychologists to such terms as assimilation and accommodation, and who had also viewed learning from a biological perspective. Piaget's great contribution was to provide a sketch of how logic emerges in a very special kind of biological organism, namely, the human. His studies of the acquisition of mathematical thinking simply helped to fill out the total picture of logical development.

The formulation of a psychology of the learning of mathematics was at last coming to be realized. Piaget's task was that of integrating previous knowledge of the problem and then adding a formidable body of new knowledge through the ingenious experimental techniques that he had devised. Piaget's theory of the mathematical behavior of the child was really a subtheory of his total conceptualization of the development of logic in the child. His work was, of course, not an end, but a new beginning to the study of how children learn mathematics. It was followed, nearly 40 years later, by the brilliant work of Gelman and Gallistel, and some others, which could not possibly have been undertaken without the careful analysis of the nature of mathematics that had preceded the planning and execution of studies with children. There is no way in which the enterprise could have been compressed into two or three years, as the Federal Government likes to do. The important ideas have to emerge in their own good time, and, at this stage of the educational research enterprise, there may be no way of buying the production of really new ideas.

One may contrast the growing body of knowledge related to the development of mathematical concepts and operations in children, with the kind of enterprises that have been encouraged in education for the purpose of improving instruction. For example, in the State of Michigan a few years ago, enormous effort was devoted to the identification of what were believed to be the thousands of components of elementary mathematics that should represent the elementary school curriculum. The components were listed in a manual of considerable size. The inadequacy and futility of the process are obvious for a barrel of minnows does not add up to a trout. If anyone instigating or directing the project had read either the Davies work, of a century earlier, or the McLellan and Dewey work, would have realized that there are not 10,000 operations involved in elementary mathematics, but only a few, though one has to admit that there is some divergency of thought among mathematicians about what is the most useful method of conceptualizing the basic mathematical processes.

The growth of knowledge, represented by the example just discussed, is a kind of growth that is almost wholly absent from the mass of information buried in ERIC, and there seems no way of ordering any part of that information into a pattern that shows a steady advancement of ideas. Even in a much researched area, such as that related to desegregation in schools, the material in the ERIC files represents nothing more than chaos. Few conclusions are consistent from study to study, and even more serious is the fact that time shows no development in organizing ideas. Whatever impact one study may have is likely to be undone by the next study. The ERIC files also show that research workers are picked up for sponsorship and then dropped, even when their approach seems to offer some promise. Indeed, one almost has the impression that enterprises are selected by the throw of dice.

There are other areas of educational research in which, over the last 100 years, there has been a successful accumulation of knowledge. Reading is one such area. In that area the fundamental perceptual facts related to reading had all been discovered by 1910, but much still had to be done. One should note that the work of Eleanor Gibson and Harry Levin (1975) on reading, although perhaps the finest piece of research

of its era related to education, was not pursued further by the Federal government. For unknown reasons Gibson and Levin were dropped from Federal sponsorship, presumably because other enterprises had acquired higher political ratings. The great difficulty in advancing our knowledge of reading at this time is that there are huge gaps in our knowledge of language comprehension. Although enormous advances in this respect have been made in recent years by Noam Chomsky, we are still on very shaky ground when we attempt to describe language comprehension. Nevertheless in the next ten years one can expect great progress to be made.

The building of an organized body of knowledge, with implications for education, was the aim of those who first developed educational research on a large scale in the early part of the century. Individuals such as Charles Hubbard Judd, Edward L. Thorndike, and G. Stanley Hall devoted a lifetime to the building of organized bodies of knowledge in their respective areas of interest. These behavioral scientists understood, as many contemporary educational research workers do not, that the only knowledge worth having is an organized body, and that the building of such a body of knowledge not only took time, but had to be undertaken in an orderly way. They understood that a lot of minnows do not add up to a large lake trout. The men I have mentioned were not interested in the minnows. They were builders of knowledge, with a background that led them to understand that a body of scientific knowledge has to be an organized body of knowledge, and that a scientific study is of little use unless it contributes to an organized body of knowledge. Also, despite the ridiculous material written to the contrary, the early programs of educational research were well funded, even by modern standards. The insights of these early educational research workers into the nature of scientific knowledge derives from the fact they were not just close to the then developing behavioral sciences. They were the leaders. Today, unfortunately, educational research no longer commands the role of leadership in the behavioral sciences. Indeed, our work is virtually unknown in the realm of behavioral science.

The Divorce of Behavioral Science From Educational Research

Educational research was to have but a short period early in the century during which it would be dominated by behavioral scientists of outstanding merit. The end of this era came in the late 1930s. The leadership of Judd, Thorndike, and G. Stanley Hall was not to be replaced by scientists of such emminence, if it was to be replaced at all. When Judd's remarkable staff retired, there was no younger generation ready to step in. The new generation consisted of individuals who had become involved in problems of education, but who had had little background in the behavioral sciences. The new generation was obsessed with the idea that the important requirement for educational research was a grounding in statistics and what were called research methods. Schools of education began to concentrate on the development of these areas for the instruction of those graduate students of education who were to become the next generation of educational research workers. This new generation was able to build up the prestige of many schools and colleges of education as the best places in which to acquire a practical knowledge of statistical analysis. Such names as E.F. Lindquist at the University

of Iowa, P.J. Rulon at Harvard and Helen Walker and I. Lorge at Teachers College emerged as the eminent names in the field. These and many others developed programs of statistical training which provided the very core of the training of the educational research workers who were to dominate the scene in the post World War II era. Within such a framework of training in statistics, the behavioral sciences of psychology and sociology slipped into the background. Indeed, the next few generations of educational research workers were to be produced by colleges of education with only the merest smattering of knowledge of the emerging behavioral sciences.

The result of this trend in the training of research workers was to eliminate the kind of leadership that had dominated the field for the previous half century. Training in statistics does not seem to provide the foundation needed for leadership in research related to education. The result has been the vacuum of leadership that has been quite evident since World War II. Our field is not unique in this respect, for as the well-known historian Henry Steele Commager has noted, this is an age that has been lacking in leadership, not only in the political sphere, but in every sphere of human activity. Schools and colleges of education must take considerable responsibility for this state of affairs in research. These institutions, since World War II, have been quite unable to provide the kind of leadership with respect to educational research that marked them in the early part of the century. Few schools or colleges of education have even a single faculty member capable of giving a broad and basic course in any of the behavioral sciences. How many schools or colleges of education today provide basic courses in cognitive learning, perception, brain structure and function, computer simulation of human intelligence, the structuralism of Jean Piaget, or in any of the other immensely exciting areas in which there have been enormous developments in recent years of the greatest significance to education? Graduate training programs in education virtually ignore the entire field of behavioral science, except perhaps for a watered down course in what they call educational psychology. There are, of course, political difficulties involved in the introduction of such courses, for the other disciplines claim that these courses belong in their territories, but the problems can be worked out. There are also difficulties in having these courses taught in the related departmental disciplines for, all too often, psychologists, sociologists, and other behavioral scientists who might teach such courses, are totally ignorant of professional knowledge in education, and quite unaware of their ignorance.

In the absence of leadership in the behavioral sciences, one should hardly be surprised at the motley pattern of titles that one finds in the ERIC system. The titles represent the product of a great variety of political forces. Thus, during one period, studies related to integration in the schools appear in numbers, then these disappear and are displaced by, say, studies in bilingualism. At present there is a wealth of studies on mainstreaming. The result is that there is no pattern of research, even over as short a period as ten years, but an index to ERIC looks much more like a random sample of titles pulled from a dictionary of all possible titles. The inevitable consequence is that knowledge does not grow, and it cannot possibly grow under the circumstances that prevail.

Technology and Education

In a culture fascinated by technology, programs related to the development of technology sometimes create the illusion of undertaking worthwhile ventures. Government has not had a particularly significant record in producing technological advances. The atomic bomb has been the main success story of the attempt of big government to invent and develop a new technology, but the virtues of this success are questionable. Almost throughout history technological advance has come through the remarkable inventions of very brilliant people who were able to think of ways of doing things that had never been thought of before. The great inventions of technology such as the smelting of metal ore, the spinning wheel, the moveable-type printing press, the collar for the horse, the stirrup, the use of steam pressure to do work, and so forth, took place not only long before government sponsored research, but long before the scientific era began. The main role of science with respect to technology has been to refine it. Thus the advent of chemistry has made it possible to control the smelting of metal in such a way that a uniform product is ensured. Most of our technology has been refined by the presence of a body of scientific knowledge rather than being created by it. There are a few areas in which scientific knowledge has led to the creation of new technologies. Examples are Ernst Haber's development of the process of fixating atmospheric nitrogen. Less clear is the development of the electronic computer, since computers had been well conceptualized more than a century ago and attempts had been made to develop advanced mechanical computers but these never functioned properly. The transistor made modern computer technology possible, though the concept of the large computer preceded the transistor by a century.

If there were an advanced science of human behavior, it might make contributions to the development of existing educational technologies, but an advanced science of human behavior does not exist. For more than a thousand years education has been overwhelmed by a single technology, namely, the technology of printing, though there have been other important technological inventions. The Augustinian catechismic form of teaching was an influential technology which, after a long decline, found a revival in the programmed text and computer based instructional program. The latter is very Augustinian in approach and, some have said, represents a very expensive, and infinitely complicated way of turning the pages of a book. The Montessori system of education also represents an important technological invention, with its emphasis on sequencing subject matter in terms of the inherent developmental pattern of the child. Education has produced, over the centuries, very important and influential technologies related to classroom instruction. These were developed largely independently of research and scientific knowledge, though Maria Montessori was influenced by the development of psychophysics.

The field of education may well offer opportunities for the development of new technologies and technological inventions. Since such inventions, of any consequence, are extremely rare over the span of history, one would suspect that there are very few chances of seeing any major technological invention take place in education during a lifetime. There are even questions whether technological developments in an area such as education should be sought, for technology in education has tended to remove education from the task of mastering the real world. Thus,

in a book oriented education the child learns, supposedly, what the real world is like by reading about it, but his grasp of the real world may be limited by the book medium through which he learns.

One can argue that the great revolutions in education, apart from the introduction of the book, never have been technological, and probably never will be. The important revolutions in education, it may be claimed, have been produced by the invention of new ideas, and not gadgets. Such an idea as the idea of equal educational opportunity for all has radically transformed education from its medieval counterpart. Another idea of immense importance is that the child is not a miniature adult intellect, but a different form of intellect from the adult. The importance of Montessori's work lay in her ideas concerning the nature of knowledge, and how it is built, rather than in the materials that she developed, and which are still used. At the present time, far greater influence is being exerted by the ideas of Piaget than by any attempts to mold the computer into the role of a teacher. Those who have been responsible for distributing funds for the promotion of the development of educational technology have emphasised the adaptation of gadgetry, used elsewhere, to the purposes of the classroom, rather than the development of an underlying set of ideas. Those who play with gadgetry can provide the illusion that they are doing something important, even when they are not, and the research community may share in the illusion. It is always easier to create the illusions than to create important ideas.

Undoubtedly, someday there will be another important invention related to teaching, as the book was, but such inventions are extremely rare in history. The invention might come tomorrow, and it might not come for one or more centuries. In the meantime, interest has to focus on the fact that education must help children to cope with reality, and that teaching in schools has to help bring children in direct contact with that reality with which they are learning to cope. Schooling is vastly more than learning to cope with books, teachers, and the modern gadgetry which appears to have marginal utility.

Much needs to be done to improve upon the established technologies. The book, as an instrument of education, has benefited from the development of such ideas as the measurement of reading level, but the book has shown surprisingly few innovations. The multilevel presentation of knowledge, as found in the new Encyclopedia Brittanica, needs to be explored. Improved ways of making an index need to be developed, ways of presenting illustrations need to be studies within a framework of theory of perception. Virtually none of this has been touched upon, perhaps because it does not have the illusionary halo of prestige that attaches to advanced technologies. Federally sponsored work related to what is called educational technology tends to be focused on high prestige objects such as the computer, just as other sponsored research tends to focus on politically attractive problems. That is why nobody could obtain Federal funds for the purpose of improving the book though funds have been available for adapting the computer to the role of the teacher. The result is that educational development in this area provides more the picture of a stage show than it does a scholarly endeavor.

Some Steps that Need to be Taken

At the present time, major defects in the structure of educational research have been virtually institutionalized, which makes them difficult to eradicate. Yet slow change must be brought about, or one can expect that a century from now educational research will still consist of a conglomerate of conclusions, that do not fit together into an organized body of knowledge, and many of which could not be verified. The difficulty of changing the direction of control of the hand of the Federal Government seems to be insuperable. The National Institute of Education will probably continue to meander down a path that leads absolutely nowhere. There is virtually no way in which a government agency can be abolished and then given a new start, since the same individuals continue to run it before and after the alleged new start, and nothing changes. Much more can probably be done to improve educational research by changing the way in which graduate students are prepared for a career in educational research. There is nothing wrong with the training in statistics that students have been given, but such training is appropriate only after they have had training in the basics of designing research in a behavioral context. An undergraduate major, or the equivalent, in either sociology or psychology would appear to be an essential ingredient for the training of the educational research worker, but such training should be supplemented with the development of skill in criticizing theory in the behavioral sciences and in understanding the current state of theory. One must not forget that any theory of classroom instruction, or any form of classroom behavior, is a psychological or sociological theory, and must meet the standards that are today demanded of such theories.

Here and there one sees a trend towards introducing up-to-date aspects of behavioral science into graduate programs of education. For example, Teachers College has introduced a program of neuroscience into its curriculum.

If graduate students of education are sent out to the departments of psychology and sociology for training, much less is accomplished than bringing psychologists and sociologists into the education enterprise. The latter policy leads to psychologists and sociologists acquiring some familiarity with the problems with which educators have to deal. There must be a two-way interaction in the future between behavioral scientists and educators. Although one would like to see behavioral scientists, (as well as philosophers and historians), working full time in colleges of education, that is not likely to happen because of the way in which the power structures of universities are organized. Psychology departments like to arrange for all courses in psychology to be taught within the department, since this helps to concentrate whatever political power psychologists may have on the campus. Problems of political power are the great obstacles to the development of a sound educational program for the training of educational research workers.

The most promising way to integrate the behavioral sciences with educational research would appear to be for individuals with a background in education to team up with academicians in the behavioral science disciplines, for the purpose of undertaking research. In this way behavioral

scientists may come to recognize the more important problems of the classroom, and the educational research worker may have contact with the wisdom accumulated in the behavioral sciences. If the contract system of the National Institute of Education would require such teamwork much could be accomplished. Out of this kind of teamwork leadership might emerge.

One may note that the main influences on education at the present time come from intellectual sources outside of education. For example, the work of Jean Piaget has been far more influential in changing educational practice than has been any work resulting from the last billion dollars spent by the Federal government on education research. Piaget has provided the kind of leadership of a behavioral scientist that characterized the leadership given to education research, earlier in the century, by outstanding psychologists. Another source of leadership has been that of Noam Chomsky who, like Piaget, has had little to say about education, but whose work has had substantial impact on teaching related to language. Such individuals are providing the kind of leadership that should exist within the educational establishment, but which has not existed for nearly half a century.

Another change in the educational research community that is necessary, if progress is to be made, is for the community to become more critical of the way in which research is promoted and research funds are approved. A national committee that supposedly governs the distribution of Federal funds needs to have members with competence related to research. Such committees have not had competence of this kind during the last 20 years, and that lack of competence has been beneficial to a small group of politically powerful individuals. The majority of educational researchers suffer from this lack of competence related to the distribution of funds, but their protests have not reached the level of a murmur. Many are afraid that their chances of obtaining Federal funds will be damaged if they voice fully justified criticisms, but even without that pressure most would do nothing. Strong protests from the educational community are needed so that the next billion dollars spent on educational research will produce vastly more than has been produced by the last billion dollars spent in the 1970s.

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NCATE: Does It Matter*

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The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) seeks to protect the public from poor quality programs of professional education. In evaluating and accrediting a program, it also seeks to provide information to institutions on the strengths and weaknesses of the professional education program. Such information, NCATE believes, should be useful to program staff in improving their offerings and to central administrators who make decisions regarding resources for these programs. How well does NCATE carry out these mandates?

Poorly, according to Christopher Wheeler, Associate Professor and Senior Researcher in the Institute for Research on Teaching (IRT) at Michigan State University who recently completed an extensive evaluation of NCATE. The study, funded jointly by IRT and the Ford Foundation, was carried out in response to a 1977 NCATE request for a comprehensive evaluation of the accreditation process, including NCATE as well as state and regional agencies. As the first in a series of proposed accreditation studies, it focused solely on NCATE -- its evaluation procedures and its effects on the quality of programs. For the study Wheeler had complete access to all NCATE records and meetings. He interviewed nearly 300 participants in the accreditation process, observed NCATE teams as they reviewed institutions, observed the Council as it made accreditation decisions and studied institutional responses to decisions denying accreditation made between 1974-78.

Wheeler found that NCATE generally provides a superficial evaluation of programs. He stated: "This study shows that NCATE Visiting Team and Council members generally look to see whether a task or function is being performed at all, not, as the NCATE standards require, whether

it is being performed well." Wheeler called this the "presence-or-absence" approach to accreditation. He found only a few instances of careful evaluation involving judgments about the quality of performance on each of NCATE's standards.

While the "presence-or-absence" approach did succeed in uncovering obvious major problems in a program and usually resulted in denial of accreditation, a clear strength of the process, the weaknesses in NCATE's accreditation process were numerous and serious. Wheeler found that standards were applied inconsistently, some were never evaluated and others were applied in favor of the institution.

"The consequences of this presence-or-absence approach are important," he argued, "for the report documents cases in which programs were accredited with weaknesses as severe as programs that were denied. Thus while NCATE's stamp of denial is a clear indication of poor quality; its stamp of approval is far less meaningful."

There are numerous reasons, Wheeler said, why the "presence-or-absence" approach prevails over a more careful evaluation.

Many of the standards are vaguely worded, so it is difficult to judge whether a program is actually meeting requirements. For example, one component of the Evaluation and Planning category requires that "the institution keeps abreast of emerging evaluation techniques and engages in systematic efforts to evaluate the quality of its graduates..." But how does an institution demonstrate that it "keeps abreast"? What constitutes "systematic"?

Another reason derived from the inappropriate influence institutions exercise over the composition of NCATE evaluation teams. Institutions can veto any member of the team. They also rate team members and team

chairs after a site visit. Those who took an in-depth approach and uncovered negative information were often given low evaluations which, it was found, affected their opportunities to participate again on subsequent teams.

Inadequate and limited information was another problem Wheeler found that confronted the NCATE evaluators. Institutions requesting NCATE accreditation are required to submit institutional reports to members of the visiting team. NCATE guidelines clearly state how the reports should be written and organized. Frequently, however, the institutions did not follow these instructions and submitted incomplete reports.

In discussing the effect NCATE had on a sample of institutions that underwent NCATE accreditation during 1979-80 and a sample of institutions with one or more programs denied accreditation between 1974 and 1978, Wheeler found that "the evidence clearly points to the conclusion that NCATE makes a very limited difference in program quality."

If accreditation seemed likely, institutions responded to the Visiting Team's findings by selecting weaknesses to be addressed according to what they considered important and politically expedient, not necessarily what NCATE considered most serious. Weaknesses of a more serious nature were addressed when denial appeared possible. When the Council accredited programs, changes beyond those already in the works were not made. In fact, when accreditation seemed in danger but was granted, change stopped or regressed. When denied accreditation, institutions gave a second look at weaknesses identified by NCATE and responded by either making numerous changes or no changes at all. When change occurred, it was more in response to other sources of influence than NCATE. These sources included legislative action, competition from neighboring institutions, regulatory powers of State

Departments of Education and pressures from alumni. Activity by these sources were often triggered by NCATE's denial, which showed that NCATE's influence was indirect rather than direct. Institutions responded more to such "levers of power" than to NCATE because such sources possessed economic or legal authority in contrast to NCATE's weaker power base of professional authority. Wheeler showed that such "levers of power" could significantly affect student enrollment, which proved to be a determining factor in the minds of central administrators as they weighed responses to NCATE's findings.

To improve NCATE's accreditation process, Wheeler recommended (1) changes in the format of the standards, (2) a policy manual that addresses each standard and provides examples, (3) development of a second, more demanding set of standards to attract institutions believing they have truly outstanding programs, (4) a system for screening out incomplete institutional reports and visiting team reports, (5) an in-depth approach taken by visiting teams, (6) improved training sessions for team members, (7) more efficient use of time during site visits, and (8) increasing the size of visiting teams and extending the site visit to three days.

To increase NCATE's influence with institutions, Wheeler recommended NCATE improve its access to external levers of power. Thus NCATE needs to (1) make the public more aware of its accreditation decisions by expanding its dissemination activities, (2) improve relationships with certain State Departments of Education, (3) develop a link between eligibility for Federal funds and accreditation by a recognized program-accrediting agency, (4) increase the number of school districts that require applicants for employment to be graduates of NCATE-accredited schools, and (5) develop alternative sources of

funding for its accrediting activities to reduce dependence on institutions.

Wheeler stressed that actions to improve the organization internally must be undertaken together with efforts to improve NCATE's access to external levers of power if NCATE is to develop into a credible, effective organization. He also noted that the recommendations were drawn solely from the study, which did not consider the validity of NCATE's standards.

Wheeler cautioned that problems noted in this study may not be unique to NCATE: this initial study did not put the Council's actions in context with other accrediting agencies.

At its October 1980 Council meeting, NCATE reviewed Wheeler's report, acknowledged the accuracy of its findings, and pledged to address the weaknesses described in the report.

Wheeler concluded his presentation by posing a series of questions that could be asked of NCATE during 1981: (1) In referring recommendations to committees for study, has the Council prioritized areas suitable for immediate reform in contrast to other areas, such as standards development, which take more time? (2) Has the Council set deadlines for committee reports and Council divisions? (3) Have sufficient resources been allocated to committees to develop proposals between Council meetings? (4) If some changes have been delegated to headquarter staff, have deadlines been set for completing recommendations? (5) Has adequate time been provided such staff to develop proposals (i.e., for a policy manual)? (6) Has the Council through headquarter staff adequately informed participants in the NCATE process of the report's findings and what they intend to do about them? (e.g., Have copies of

the report been sent to team chairpersons? Have institutions received a complete summary of the report?) (8) Have training sessions for team chairs and prospective team members been altered to reflect findings in the report? Answers to these questions, Wheeler suggested, could provide ATE members and the public an indication of the direction NCATE plans to take in the years to come.

*The full report (same title) is available at cost of $14.00 as publication No. 92 in the Research Series. Order from IRT Publications, 252 Erickson, MSU, East Lansing, MI 48824.

Profiles of Excellence

Presentation of a July 1980 Draft Discussion Paper by the
National Education Association entitled,
"Professional Development: Teacher Education and the Application of Standards"

Robert Roth, ATE Summer Workshop Chair, Mich. Dept. of Education
Peggy Elliott, Indiana University Northwest
Hans Olsen, Univ. of Houston at Clear Lake City
Carol Norman, National Education Association, Washington, DC

Introduction - Robert Roth

Sharon Robinson, NEA's Director of Instruction and Professional Development, had expected to be here to present this report, but has been unable to leave Washington, due to the air traffic controllers strike. I have duplicated excerpts from the report, which will be elaborated by Peggy Elliott and Hans Olsen, who have access to the full report. They will then provide their reactions. Final NEA approval of a revision of this report is expected in July 1982, with subsequent implementation in selected target states.

Brief Summary of Report (Roth, Elliott, Olsen)

1. Procedures and program for the recruitment, selection, preparation, and licensure of teachers. There should be active recruitment of candidates and a 2-year preprofessional education program strong in components common to the human services. Selection and admission process should be by portfolio reviewed by a committee (representing both K-12 teachers and higher education), and include a personal interview to assess professional maturity, examination of performance in the human services and other preprofessional programs, and recommendations from qualified personnel. The 3-year teacher education program should include a continuation (in diminishing proportions) of the general education component (total 5 years), increasing time for academic specialization and professional education (last 3 years), supervised practicum (throughout 3rd & 4th years), and internship (5th year).
2. The kinds of experience and study through which prospective teachers might attain necessary skills and knowledge. These are identified as courses and seminars; observation and examination, under supervision; simulations and games; practicum, clinical and laboratory

experiences; field and library research; supervised experience; analysis of teaching; advisement; exposure to people, places and things; and attending social, cultural, and professional events.

3. Four conceptual schemes of what licensed teachers should be able to do. Each preparing institution should develop its own version of what a teacher should be able to do to be licensed. Four possible (and acceptable) schemes are presented:
   a. list of 17 competencies (e.g., diagnose student learning stages and difficulties)
   b. a diagnostic/prescriptive managerial model containing four competency areas
   c. a role approach (8 roles listed, including teacher of students, and member of a teacher organization)
   d. command of 7 or 8 generic teaching competencies (citing Margaret Lindsey, 1978)
4. What licensed teachers should know. Ten areas of knowledge and skills necessary for attainment by all educators, regardless of grade level or subject field, are listed; they include knowledge related to general education, social foundations, as well as skills of communication, research, and leadership.
5. Professional involvement in assuring quality teacher education programs. Standards of competence must be provided at local, state, regional, and national levels, established and enforced by the profession to whom the responsibility should be legally delegated. Many specific recommendations are provided, including that only institutions accredited at all levels qualify for federal funds.
6. What roles various agencies should play in teacher education. Government agencies, teacher education institutions, school districts and the organized profession all have obligation to contribute to continued improvement of professional education and personnel.
7. What inservice education should be. This should be a career long program for personal professional development and school improvement, monitored by a standards and licensure commission, collective bargaining contract, and the employer. (This is the least developed section, possibly because NEA has another position paper on professional development.)

Comments - Peggy Elliott

Overall, I applaud the efforts of NEA. They are clearly serious. But there are some qualifying observations that I believe must be made:

1. There is shockingly little rationale (about 1 1/2 pages in a total of 50 pages) to support proposed operational changes. Suggestion for massive change should not be supported by opinion; it requires well developed and supported pragmatic and philosophic base.
2. The practitioners are seeking full control of their preparation (e.g., through NCATE), without clear support for their ability to control or their willingness to reallocate their time to provide sufficient time to do so properly.
3. It is disappointing in that the document is neither inspired nor creative. In its best parts it only describes present best practices.
4. I perceive some "bulling"; if an institution doesn't seek NCATE accreditation, federal dollars will be withheld. This creates an unfair situation for smaller institutions that have inadequate resources for such participation. It sets a "price tag" on preparing teachers.
5. A clearer definition is needed with respect to accreditation levels.
6. Conclusions are too simplistic; all teachers must be prepared for all roles, allowing for no division of labor, which in a time of knowledge explosion is not a thoughtful posture.
7. NEA seems to omit recognition of the public they must serve and the universities where teachers are developed, each of whom have just as legitimate claim to their interests in regard to teacher preparation.

Comments - Hans Olsen

1. This document attempts to provide a comprehensive statement regarding teacher education -- a difficult task, indeed.
2. This is more a statement of what <u>is</u>, not what <u>could</u> or <u>ought to</u> be (e.g., accreditation perceived as periodic, not continuous).
3. Serious consideration is given to the pre-admission status of students.
4. A distinction is made between practitioners and teacher educators. ATE, in contrast, says all are teacher educators if involved in teacher education.
5. There is no recognition that each profession has its training arm.

6. The various agencies involved in teacher education are placed in perspective, with their legal and ethical responsibilities.
7. This proposal makes national accreditation mandatory, contrary to our long tradition of voluntary accreditation.
8. We must recognize that this is not a think piece, but a political document. When approved it will become NEA policy, tending to solidify opinions of their representatives.

Response - Carol Norman

I'd like to thank both Peggy Elliott and Hans Olsen for their comments, which I will convey to NEA. I would also invite anyone who wishes to send their comments to NEA.

ED219379

TEACHER CANDIDATE SELECTION AND EVALUATION
Focusing Questions

1. What entry level criteria should be used for acceptance into teacher education programs?
2. What levels of competence should a teacher candidate demonstrate in order to remain in a teacher education program?
3. What criteria should be used when denying certification at the end of student teaching?
4. What are the legal implications of screening and selection procedures?
5. What are the consequences of tougher standards in teacher education programs?
6. How do grades in teacher education compare with other areas of academic work?
7. What are the legal implications of "saying it like it is" when writing narratives or recommendations for future teachers?

SP 020 579

Recruitment, Selection and Evaluation of Preservice Secondary Teachers in a Small Liberal Arts College

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Introduction

A national educational concern today is recruiting quality students into the teaching profession. Departments of Education, particularly those located in small liberal arts colleges, are in a unique position to encourage the "best" students to become teachers. This can be accomplished by capitalizing on Education as a discipline within the liberal arts curriculum and by incorporating the aims of a liberal education into the teacher training program. The following presentation will include a discussion on: (1) recruitment techniques; (2) selection requirements; (3) training methods; (4) evaluative instruments; (5) exit requirements; and (6) counseling methods for withdrawal from the program. The teacher training program described in this report is in its fifth year and is a highly personalized and individualized competency oriented sequence of instruction that integrates theory and practice at all levels. This program, developed in collaboration with three school districts, incorporates field work into each course offering and the preservice teacher is required to demonstrate generic and specific competencies at each level.

The following is a brief description highlighting some of the activities under each strand of the program.

Recruitment Techniques:

In order to gain access to all students, and especially the freshmen, social science elective courses in Education are offered. An Education newsletter with employment statistics and articles on the teaching profession is distributed to all majors who could be potential teacher candidates. Students listed on the Dean's List receive special attention and are encouraged to discuss the teaching profession with a staff member. An Education Club for all college students provides a forum for discussing important issues in Education. These are just a few techniques employed. The measure of recruitment success not only is demonstrated in increased enrollment but also in the quality of the students entering the teacher training program. The average "cum" of this year's class was 3.40 and more than half the students were on the Dean's List.

Selection Requirements:

The screening process consists of the following:

1. Completion of the formal application.
2. Interviews with the Education Department staff.
3. Written recommendations from their major area chairperson and one other professor.
4. Review of the student's logs and evaluations in the Level I and II courses (prior to student teaching).
5. Review of the student's cumulative record.

Training Methods:

The competencies each student is expected to demonstrate are known to the student before he/she enters the program and the method for assessing each competency is identified. Various training methods are used by the staff to insure that each preservice teacher has every opportunity to achieve success. There is a heavy emphasis on micro-teaching and the use of video-taping for self-analysis.

During the senior year, the student teacher is placed in his/her field assignment in the Fall where attendance is required one day a week. This allows for an adequate adjustment period prior to full-time student teaching in the Spring. It also provides time to change field sites, when it is in the best interest of the student. Each student is required to develop a five week unit plan which he/she will teach from in the Spring. From this unit plan, a learning activity module is also developed with a stress on mastery learning. Each student writes a contract with his/her cooperating teacher describing which classes he/she will assume full responsibility and the approximate length of time. This contract guarantees a gradual induction into the teaching/learning process.

Evaluative Instrumentation:

Besides a description of the assessment process for each competency, the staff of the Education Department, in cooperation with the public school teachers continually work together to develop objective instruments in order to evaluate the preservice teachers' performance in both the affective and cognitive areas. Weekly, the student teacher, the cooperating teacher and the college supervisor complete the same evaluation form assessing the progress of the student teacher. These are reviewed in a three-way conference and recommendations are made.

Exit Requirements:

The level of proficiency for each competency is set and each preservice teacher is expected to reach this minimum level prior to graduation. Again this is known to the student and the cooperating teacher in the field.

Counseling Methods:

Individual counseling is available for each preservice teacher throughout the program. By studying the student journals from their field work during their freshmen, sophomore, and junior year and the written evaluations from the teachers in the field site, the staff is able to gain insight and develop a profile on each student. At various checkpoints decisions are made as to whether a student should remain in the program. These checkpoints continue throughout the intensive field work of student teaching. Even during this period students are counseled to withdraw if it becomes apparent that they are unable to attain the exit requirements. This withdrawal does not necessarily interfere with graduation.

Conclusion:

One criteria used to measure the effectiveness of any teacher training program would be to study the employment record of the teacher candidates during the past five years. In 1975 about 70% of the students were employed in teaching. There has been a steady increase until in 1980 there was a 100% employment record. More and more local school districts and districts throughout the State who are pleased with the "products" from this program, call to let the department know about vacancies and anticipated vacancies.

Perceptions of Quality in Teacher Candidates: Implications for Teacher Training

Robert Cross, Grand Valley State Colleges
Uldis Smidchens, Western Michigan University
James Thrall, Godfrey-Lee Public Schools
Tyrus Wessell, Jr., Grand Valley State Colleges

Part I. "The Association of Personality Traits with the Concept of a Good Teacher in the Judgement of Selected Groups of Experts" (Cross)

The purpose of this study was to develop an informal subjective procedure for the identification of personality characteristics of good teachers using the Bayes' theorem and other statistical measures.

The study determined that judges (principals and coordinators) thought that 65.40% of all teachers were good teachers. The posterior probabilities indicated that the following traits were most closely associated with the concept of a "good teacher":

Trait	Posterior Probability (a good teacher)
Child centered	.880
Creative	.872
Practical	.861
Patience	.841
Not easily depressed	.840
Frivolous	.839
Motivating	.835

It was further determined that the first three traits (child centered, creative, practical) would give a sufficient cumulative posterior probability (.9983) to be used for teacher selection or evaluation.

Sub-group comparisons did not indicate a significant difference between the various sub-groups (except for the comparison between general and special education). The sub-groups agreed almost unanimously on the seven most powerful discriminating traits.

Part II. "Local District and Teacher Education Perceptions of Quality in Entry-Level Teachers." (Smidchens, Thrall, and Wessell)

The purpose of this study was to identify local district superintendent and teacher educator perception of those characteristics and skills deemed most important to the teaching process and compare and contrast the subject groups' views of differentiating characteristics.

Fifty-seven characteristics were ranked for both groups by using respondents' ratings on each item. The following nine teacher characteristics were among the top ten in both rankings:

-ability to manage instruction
-classroom management skills
-ability to teach toward an intended goal
-knowledge of human development and learning
-mastery of the English language in written and spoken form
-ability to communicate
-human relations skills
-consideration for other people
-emotional stability

Characteristics rated among the five lowest ranked for both the faculty and the superintendents included the following:

-ability to disseminate career education information
-knowledge of the political and legal history of American education
-understanding of sociology and cultural anthropology
-skills in research methods in behavioral sciences

t-test analysis yielded significant differences between the mean of the superintendents' ratings and the mean of the faculty ratings for each of the following characteristics:

-ability to teach culturally different student
-ability to evaluate textbooks
-ability to follow rules and regulations of administration and board
-pleasing appearance

BASIC SKILLS INVENTORIES AND TEACHER PERCEIVER SCREENERS - CAN THEY BE VALID PREDICTORS OF STUDENT TEACHING PERFORMANCE?

By

Erma I. Sentz
Floyd P. Perry
Sue S. Lail

In an attempt to gain helpful insights for establishing a valid admissions policy for the teacher education program at St. Cloud State University, a pilot study was conducted on the winter quarter, 1981, group of student teachers.

Three basic questions were asked:

1. Are there relationships between personal characteristics, basic skills and student teaching performance?
2. Can specific measures of personal characteristics or basic skills, or a combination of them, be used to predict student teaching performance?
3. Are there significant differences between student teachers' performance ratings for those who score low and those who score high on the specified instruments?

Data was collected from student teachers on the Teacher Perceiver Screener, Descriptive Tests of Mathematics and Descriptive Tests of Language Skills of the College Board, and from university supervisors and supervising teachers on an adapted form of the Purdue Teacher Evaluation Scale.

Pearson correlation coefficients, multiple regression equations and one-way analysis of variance were computed to seek answers to the three basic questions.

Correlations between university supervisors and supervising teachers were in the high seventies; and were very low between the Screener and Basic Skills scores.

Using Basic Skills (Math and Language) and Screener (Non-developmental and Developmental) scores as variables to predict university supervisors' and supervising teachers' performance ratings of student teachers, the following regression equations were obtained. Subscore ratings were consistent with total ratings.

TABLE 1

REGRESSION EQUATIONS
PREDICTING STUDENT TEACHING PERFORMANCE
FROM SEPARATE BASIC SKILLS AND SCREENER SCORES

Performance Raters	REGRESSION EQUATION Constant	Weight	Variable	R^2	Standard Error Estimate	F	Significance
University Supervisors	231.49	1.39	(Non-developmental score)	.007	128.93	1.437	.25
Supervising Teachers	124.92	3.81	(Math score)	.042	125.07	3.605	.10

However, the best predictor was a combination of Screener and Math scores, significant for university supervisors' ratings beyond the .025 level and beyond the .005 level for supervising teachers' ratings. See Table 2.

TABLE 2

REGRESSION EQUATIONS

PREDICTING STUDENT TEACHING PERFORMANCE

FROM COMBINED BASIC SKILLS AND SCREENER SCORES

Performance Raters	REGRESSION EQUATION Constant	Weight	Variables	R^2	Standard Error Estimate	F	Significance
University Supervisors	181.84	2.22	(Screener & Math)	.057	139.67	5.918	.025
Supervising Teachers	139.83	2.83	(Screener & Math)	.097	138.17	9.828	.005

Subscore ratings were consistent with totals except for university supervisors' ratings of fairness of teacher, which showed a combination of the Screener and Language scores as the best predictor at the .025 level.

Analysis of variance showed university supervisors' performance ratings lower for student teachers who scored low on the Screener at the .0001 level and supervising teachers' ratings lower at the .0003 level of significance. Although Basic Skills were consistent with Screener scores, the only ratings significantly lower were for low math scorers at the .10 and .01 levels respectively.

The researchers consider their findings encouraging enough to pursue the study with larger groups over a longer period of time.

ED219380

PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION CONTENT, ORGANIZATION AND FIELD EXPERIENCES

Focusing Questions

1. What does research in teacher education say about the frequency of visitations and nature of contact by university supervisors?
2. Which group of teacher educators should be coordinating student teaching?
3. What is the appropriate number of student teachers for a full faculty load?
4. What should be the minimum training and background for university supervisors?
5. How can part-time supervisors interface effectively with full-time faculty members?
6. What is the most effective way of developing expertise in specific areas of teacher education? (For example: computer technology, classroom management, and individualized instruction.)
7. How can faculty members develop a model of structured field experiences with effective supervision?
8. What does research say about the impact of prestudent teaching field experiences upon the future success of teacher candidates?
9. What criteria should be used when selecting schools and teachers for placement purposes?
10. In what ways can university supervisors provide inservice to cooperating teachers?

SP 020 580

Early and Continuous:
A Design for Structured Field Experiences

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The field experiences in the undergraduate teacher education program at Purdue University Calumet are designed to be initiated early and continued throughout the student's college program. The plan includes a 3-year continuing seminar where one of the goals is to help students discover personal meaning from their field experiences. The field experiences are scheduled along with the professional courses as follows:

Freshman - Introduction
Sophomore - Foundations
Junior - Methods
Senior - Mini courses and Student Teaching

The earliest field experiences are in conjunction with the 1-credit "Introduction" course which is described as a 3-hour lab. During this semester, students select experiences from a listing of 40 to 50 suggested activities. Examples of these would be (1) visit a teacher center and interview the director, (2) interview a school principal, (3) attend a school board meeting, (4) attend an open house at a local school.

For educational psychology and methods courses, catalog descriptions and teaching formats were changed to include lab hours as well as class hours. For the weekly lab course, each student is assigned for the semester to a classroom teacher in a cooperating school field experience center. The college instructor and the classroom teacher plan together to provide a specially designed program for each college student. The planned activities vary with the college course objectives but may include such assignments as (1) maintain a log of your observations, (2) plan and teach a mini-lession, (3) analyze the learning environment in your classroom. During the period of the field experiences, the college instructor makes regular observational visits to the one or two centers where students are assigned.

The senior year field experience is the "full-time" student teaching. Since the seniors have already had three years of experience in the schools, there is a high level of student involvement in the decision as to what kind of placement would be best for the student teaching experience. In addition, as a result of the "early and continuous" field experiences, students enter student teaching with more confidence and a more realistic understanding of the role of the teacher. Consequently, the student becomes involved earlier and in more meaningful ways during the student teaching experience.

In implementing field experiences at all pre-service levels of teacher preparation, the University utilizes a "center" concept in cooperation with area schools. The field experience center is an identified school which accepts groups of college students for specific developmental experiences during a given semester.

Centers represent varying philosophies, organizations, and programs as well a varying cultural, social, and economic settings. Over the period of four years, students are assigned to a variety of settings. Special consideration is given to providing experiences with handicapped, minority, and multi-ethnic children. The field experience center grows from the mutual goals and desires of the University and the school, with school personnel deciding upon the degree and type of participation they feel they can best incorporate. A 4-year record of each student's experiences (age level, type of community, etc.) is maintained by the field experience placement office.

The continuing 3-year seminars, planned around the "community of learners" concept, are designed to help students discover personal meaning from their experiences and to relate those experiences to the concepts developed in the college classroom. A student remains with one seminar throughout the teacher preparation program. A faculty member, as the seminar leader, also remains with the group throughout the program. In the seminars, through discussion and exploration, students discover personal meaning for the theoretical and experiential aspects of their college work.

In summary, the design of early and continuous structured field experiences with the accompanying seminar has helped teacher education students with their decisions concerning teaching, with their development of teaching skills, and with their feelings about themselves as "involved" teacher candidates.

Student-Student Interaction in the Classroom:

A Naturalistic Study

Rachel Hertz-Lazarowitz, Haifa University
Hugh Baird, Brigham Young University
Clark D. Webb, Brigham Young University

Learning in the classroom can take place within four possible goal structures: competitive, cooperative, individualistic and no-structure. Teachers have the power to determine the classroom's goal-structure by modifying learning activities assigned to students.

In recent years, several cooperative classroom techniques have been developed and the research literature indicates that cooperative learning results in more gains (including cognitive gains) than other kinds of learning in the classroom. References for descriptions of some of the cooperative techniques and the research findings are given.

Purpose of Study

The study had three goals:

1. To conduct a naturalistic observation in secondary school science classrooms (most of the earlier research has been conducted in elementary schools) resulting in basic data on social behaviors of students.

2. To conceptualize classroom cooperative and helping behaviors and account for the teacher's role in eliciting the behaviors; further, to determine the cognitive level of the behaviors.

3. To test for the effect of three variables on social behaviors: a) subject b) mode of instruction, and c) level of discipline in the classroom.

Method

Thirty secondary science classrooms taught by student teachers were observed over a period of three weeks, resulting in 159 observations and a total of 2,650 observed student behaviors. Trained observers coded the social behaviors, the conditions under which they took place, and the cognitive level of the interactions. Inter-observer reliability was .94.

Measures

I. Dependent Variables

Four types of social behavior were categorized and observed:
a. non-interaction
b. social event: off-task student-student interaction
c. cooperation
c. helping: interactions that are on-task

II. Independent Variables

a. Subject: General Science, Biology, Chemistry, and Earth Science.
b. Mode of Instruction (five): lecture, laboratory, individual work, films and games, and tests.
c. Discipline: observed classes were evaluated for low, average and high discipline level (agreement among three judges was .91).

Results

Using multivariate analysis of variance procedures, we found significant F values for the four dependent variables on each of the independent variables. Further, analysis of variance procedures yielded significant main effects and interactions. The most important results are:

1. Overall, 52% of student behavior was non-interactive; 28% was social-event, off-task behaviors.

2. Only 14% of student-student interaction were cooperative and helping on-task behaviors.

3. Most of the helping behavior was unsolicited, i.e., students voluntarily engaged in helping each other.

4. Helping behavior was most frequent in the "individual work" (lectures and tests).

5. Significant subject matter differences were found.

6. Discipline level of classrooms was significantly related to the incidence of cooperative behavior.

Study Summary

The present study examined student-student interaction in secondary science classrooms and described the teacher's role in using different goal structures. The unbalanced pattern of social interactions of students, the high percentage of on-task social behaviors, and the small percentage of on-task social interactions suggest that teacher education programs should include an emphasis on the social-cognitive elements of goal-structure in classroom teaching and learning.

A Utilization Focused Evaluation of the Field Supervision Process

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At the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, preservice teacher education has undergone changes in content and organization as a result of Illinois State Board of Education requirements that teacher education students engage in a minimum of one hundred hours of early field experience. This evaluation research, based upon a working definition of "competent" supervision, was designed to examine and improve the quality of field supervision within the twenty-two teacher education programs of the six colleges of the University of Illinois.

"Competent" supervision, for the purpose of this study, is supervision by persons who respond to the behavior signals of teacher candidates during the preparation period by intervention which can modify appropriately the candidate's behavior. Initially, the study focused on student teachers (N=38) from the twenty-two teacher education programs who experienced practicum difficulties. Faculty and staff involved in the educational program of each student were requested to attend a staffing. Questions of the study, and of the staffings, were: (1) What are the nature and frequency of problems encountered by teacher candidates during the practicum period? (2) During the professional education sequence, with what frequency were there behaviors which signaled practicum problems? (3) With what frequency was intervention made to modify behavior, and what intervention was attempted? Videotapes of the staffings were analyzed and patterns of difficulties and of interventions were determined.

Following the analysis of the staffings, nine specific implementations were outlined and initiated. From initial conceptualization, this evaluation was designed to be utilization focused; that is, the success of the study is being measured by the immediate, concrete, and observable effect on decisions and program activities that result from the findings. To date, policy revisions, printed materials for students and staff, plans for workshops and seminars, attempts at alternative evaluation procedures for field performances, and secondary studies have resulted from this research. A questionnaire, for all University supervisors, exploring questions asked during the staffings, but left unanswered, was directed toward these concerns: supervisory personnel relationships and communication, preparation, role perceptions, on-site aspects of supervision, responsibilities and personal considerations.

This initial study is now being viewed as a first step in evaluating the supervisory process. The first evaluation strand (E-1), the study of teacher candidates who encountered problems during the practicum period, is being followed by a second evaluation strand (E-2), the study of teacher

candidates who demonstrated particular strengths during the practicum period. "Competent" supervision continues to be the central focus, as University faculty and cooperating teachers examine interventions made to modify behavior of those teacher candidates with difficulties and interventions designed to support and aid the further development of teaching strengths.

Elements of the process and product of this evaluation research, which is continuing, rather than completed, may be generalizable. Specifically, however, the study was designed to, and we believe is, involving and affecting University decision-makers who can take action linked to the findings.

A National Survey of Preservice Teacher Field Experiences Supervision and Evaluation

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at Carbondale

Dr. D. John McIntyre
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The purpose of this study was to ascertain trends in preservice teacher education field experiences supervision and evaluation. An open-ended questionnaire, was sent to every student teaching director or equivalent, in all 50 states as well as Washington, D.C., Puerto Rico, Guam, the Virgin Islands, and Canada.

Length of Student Teaching. Most institutions reported that from 9 to 16 weeks were required for elementary and secondary student teaching. However, in the Middle States, New England and Western regions more weeks (13-16) seem to be required than in the North Central, Northwest and Southern regions (9-12).

Type of Grades. Despite the controversy surrounding the grade awarded for student teaching, letter grades still predominant in most regions. Alternatives to letter grades, such as pass/fail or credit/no credit, tend to be most evident in the Northwest and West regions.

Recorded Credit Hours. Overall, the majority of student teachers receive 5-12 credit hours for their field experience. However, elementary student teachers receive slightly more credit hours than secondary majors with the majority of secondary students receiving from 5 to 8 credit hours.

Development of Evaluation Form. Nearly 46% of all student teaching evaluation forms were reportedly developed exclusively by university faculty and/or administrators. Public school teachers and administrators provided input into the development of approximately 42% of the forms and university students had input into less than 5% of the forms.

General Framework of Evaluation Form. The majority of institutions reported the utilization of a performance/competency based framework for their student teaching evaluation form.

Most and Least Important Items on Evaluation Form. Student teaching directors were asked to report the most and least important items on the evaluation. Teaching skills, classroom management, planning, and knowledge were reported as the most important items while appearance, professionalism, and rapport w/staff as the least important items.

Training for Cooperating Teachers. Nearly 60% of the institutions reported no training for their cooperating teachers. Only 2.7% offered formal courses in supervision of student teaching.

Direct Observation of Student Teachers. The majority of institutions reported that both elementary and secondary university supervisors spend between 5-8 hours of direct observation per student during a semester/quarter. It would appear that most student teachers receive an hour of direct observation by a university supervisor once every two weeks per semester/quarter.

Feedback Devices for Student Teachers. Conferences, observation forms, and seminars are the most frequently cited as devices to provide feedback to student teachers. Non-traditional devices, such as videotape, audiotape and self-evaluation are utilized infrequently.

Completion of Evaluation Forms. Interestingly, only 19% of the institutions reported that cooperating teachers and university supervisors complete the student teaching evaluation form jointly. Nearly 40% of the programs utilize either the university supervisor or cooperating teacher as the sole determinant of the final grade and/or final recommendation. Student teachers have input into their final evaluation in only 7% of the programs reporting.

(A more detailed report, including tables by state and region, can be obtained by contacting the authors.)

Improving the Quality of the Student Teaching Experience

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The mandate is clear; quality teaching is wanted in the nation's schools. The education profession regards student teaching as the capstone in teacher preparation programs which develop well-qualified teachers. In order to assist in the development of "quality" teachers, educators must not only look at the experiences provided at the university, but also at the quality of the stations in which students do their practicum work. In order to obtain "quality stations," criteria are needed to assure that those schools, in which Student Teaching is done, reach a measured level of excellence. In addition, student teachers should be assigned to compatible cooperating teachers.

In order to develop criteria which would be appropriate in determining which schools and teachers should be used in quality teacher education programs, a study was conducted which involved two main parts. In the first part, criteria for use in identifying quality stations were established. These criteria were obtained by first abstracting criteria from the commentaries of educational news reporters. A group of educators consisting of ten school principals and five teachers from each of their buildings were then asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each criterion that the news reporters indicated was indigenous to good school programs. In this way, criteria were developed to be applied in the selection of schools for student teaching assignments.

An analysis of the twenty-five items chosen as descriptors of good schools allowed this list to be reduced to . The variance of responses to the reduced list was minimal and suggests reasonable or complete agreement as to the characteristics of good schools. A school exhibiting each of the features would be considered a satisfactory station in which a student teacher practicum experience could be completed.

The second part of this study involved the development of materials for use in the matching of student teachers with student teacher sponsors who had similar "Educational Beliefs." Initially, a 21-item inventory was developed reflecting beliefs about education. Sentence stems were chosen from ideas gleaned from a review of the literature. Fifty student teachers and fifty-six student teacher sponsors were asked to select one of three phrases to complete twenty-one items. The Educational Beliefs Form was also given to four professors who taught philosophy of education courses. These professors were asked to place each statement in one of five philosophic categories.

An analysis of the responses to the compatibility of Educational Beliefs Form indicated that there was a wide diversion of responses to eight of the twenty-one sentence stems. This diversion would reflect areas of major disagreement between student teachers and student teacher sponsors. In our experience, incompatibility in educational outlook often results in personality and/or approaches to teaching conflicts between the student teacher and the

student teacher sponsor. These occurrences necessitate change of placement for the student teaching practicum experience. Since the procedural approaches to teaching that are likely to be followed by the neophite teachers are rooted in the student teaching experiences, this attempt to match beliefs seems important.

These eight items, where great differences in the responses of student teacher sponsors and student teachers were noted, would be used so that student teachers were placed with sponsors who had similar educational beliefs.

Serendipity for Those Who Really Care

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Director of Professional Field Experiences
Arizona State University

A peripheral anlysis was made as to the philosophic position reflected in each statement in the "Educational Beliefs" inventory. Four professors of educational philosophy were asked to place each statement in one of five philosophic categories. The category titles and definitions were those of this presentor and are understood to be open for discussion as most philosophic topics are.

Dispersion of philosophical beliefs are reflected in the response choices available for the eight items selected for inclusion in the final instrument. Among the twenty-four choices available our philosophy panel suggested: 7 items reflect an idealistic approach to education; 3 items as realistc; 6 items as pragmatic; 6 items as existentialistic; and 4 items as phenomenalistic. Our panel gave an overlapping rating on one item between pragmatic and existentialistic and one item between existentialism and phenomenology.

The lack of uniformity of choices among the items when viewed on a philosophic scale leads this author to assume the pluralistic outlooks of school teachers are alive and well.

Professional Experiences That Should Be Provided in Student Teaching-- Both General Experiences and Experiences Specific to Sixteen Different Disciplines

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Several years ago faculty members from the various department of the University of Northern Iowa involved in student teaching programs were asked to list experiences which would be desirable for their candidates to receive in student teaching. These materials have been made available to student teachers and supervising teachers at the beginning of each student teaching term. Some departments provided detailed lists, other departments provided sketchy lists, and some departments provided no materials. There was an obvious need to improve existing guides, to prepare guides for some departments, and to be more consistent in providing helps for all student teachers and supervising teachers.

As a first step in improving these materials, literature from various institutions of higher learning in the United States was surveyed and the existing University of Northern Iowa guides were supplemented, updated, and completed for all departments. These materials were then submitted to teacher education personnel in the sixteen departments at the University of Northern Iowa involved in student teacher programs for refinement and approval.

It was immediately apparent upon receipt of the materials from these departments that some guides were extremely helpful and some were of limited value. In order to provide each student teacher with useful materials, those desired experiences which were deemed to be general and applicable to students from all departments were identified. The list proved to be too lengthy and was shortened to thirty-eight experiences by using an opinionnaire which was submitted to one hundred Iowa teachers, one hundred University of Northern Iowa professors, and one hundred practicing student teachers throughout Iowa. The responses of the student teachers were not used in arriving at the thirty-eight general desired experiences because at their stage of professional development they were considered to be pre-professional. Their responses were used, however, in other ways as the data from the opinionnaire was summarized.

Three other procedures were used to analyze the data obtained from the opinionnaire. The ten experiences deemed to be most important by each group of respondents (teachers, professors, student teachers) were listed. The ten experiences considered to be least important by each group of respondents were listed. The ten most important experiences and the ten least important experiences as reported by the entire group of approximately three hundred respondents were also listed.

The original lists of recommended or desired experiences in student teaching were used for several years at the University of Northern Iowa. They proved to be useful to both student teachers and supervising teachers. The revised materials resulting from this study should improve the guides in three important ways. They drew on professional literature beyond the University of Northern Iowa; personnel at the University of Northern Iowa refined and supplemented the materials submitted to them by the writer; and those experiences deemed to be general were sorted out and made available to all student teachers and supervising teachers. The experiences specific to each of the sixteen disciplines, as revised by the University of Northern Iowa professors, are included as a part of this report.

The Student Teaching Experience from the Perspective of the Student Teacher

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Blackburn College

This study was designed to elicit the perspective of student teachers regarding their student teaching experiences. Using field research techniques, participant observation, interviewing and self report data, the beliefs and behaviors of five undergraduate interns engaged in student teaching experiences over a twenty week period were investigated to describe emically* the student teaching experience. Based on the theory of symbolic interaction, the researcher attempted to discern the subjects' process of interpretation by observing the student teachers as they encountered situations and events, interpreted these events and constructed their social reality.

Five major elements emerged as indicative of the student teachers' perspective of the student teaching experience. First, the student teacher perceived her role (as a student teacher) as that of a junior partner. Second, she perceived the goal of student teaching as proving herself--to herself and to others. She directed her actions and behaviors toward attainment of this goal. For the subjects, the goal had both cognitive and affective dimensions, including attention to in-classroom and beyond classroom concerns. Third, in the student teachers' perspective, reaching the goal consisted of a configuration of movements defined as four, indentifiable, interdependent objectives. To achieve this goal, the student teacher believed she had to (a) develop teaching proficiencies, (b) attain recognition of leadership/control, (c) modify personal propensities and (d) acquire a teacher identity. These four objectives were present simultaneously and depended on one another for achievement of the goal. Fourth, the student teacher perceived the consequences of reaching the goal, via attainment of the objectives, as cognitive and affective changes in knowledge, perceptions, attitudes and actions. Fifth, one perceived outcome of the student teaching experience was a readiness for autonomy, evidenced by disassociation with the junior partner role.

A least three conclusions were drawn from the research having implications for researchers, teacher educators and practitioners:

1. The student teaching experience of the subjects of this study did not support stage theory as defined by Fuller (1969, 1972, 1974) and others.
2. The goal of student teaching (proving oneself) as defined by the subjects had both cognitive and affective dimensions.
3. The process of analytic thinking and reflection that resulted from clinic professor and researcher intervention contributed to the personal and professional growth of the subjects.

The results of this study generate an additional set of questions that may serve as hypothesis for further research. Do student teachers trained by differ-

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*emic: "the people's definitions of meaning, their idea systems are seen as the most important 'causes' or explanations of behavior" (Pelto, P. J., & Pelto, G. H., 1970, p. 62).

ent preservice programs develop the same perspective of student teaching as the subjects of this study? How does the student teacher perspective map/differ from that of the teacher educator/cooperating teacher? How is the student teacher perspective influenced by the environment, the preservice program, the university supervisor? This study adds a new dimension to what is already known about the student teaching experience and serves as a basis for continuing disciplined inquiry into the student teaching experience so that teacher educators may better design and implement preservice programs that promote positive personal and professional growth.

The Preservice Teacher (PST) Model for Parent Education

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The Preservice Teacher (PST) Model for Parent Education (1) identifies and describes the early childhood-adult educator as a new role in the field of education, and (2) presents strategies by which this new role can be explored during preservice training.

The presenter describes the early childhood-adult educator as a person who is a practitioner of both early childhood and adult education. Competencies include (1) knowledge of child growth and development and the ability to create learning activities that respond to the needs of the growing child; (2) skill in working with adults to make possible open communication and close working relationships with staff, parents, and community agencies; (3) ability to apply the principles of adult learning to help parents become more effective and efficient teachers of their own children.

The knowledge and skills of the early childhood-adult educator are utilized in three ways, each of which has a major and a minor concern. (1) Center based worker. Major concern: working with children; minor concern: parent involvement, teacher aide training, coordination of health or social service needs. (2) Home visitor, or parent educator. Major concern: working with parents; minor concern: working with child, and with adults in other organizations who provide needed services. (3) Person who works with preservice and inservice teachers and all others who are connected with programs for young children. Holds dual-membership in youth education and adult education. Works with learners at all levels.

The PST Model evolved as part of the presenter's course: Parent Education and School, Community Relationships, at North Carolina Central University, which is required of all K-3 education majors, and home economics students pursuing a minor in human growth and development. Workshop strategies are developed to enable parent education activities that match the real world behavior required of teachers.

In its function as a process model, the PST Model provides a step-by-step sequence which describes ten tasks to be accomplished in the training activity. Students involved draw heavily from Early Childhood Education in the Home (Delmar, 1977) which the presenter wrote to accommodate student needs. The model is offered as a supplement in a face-to-face training program where the ideas and suggestions presented can be discussed by instructor and students, and applied as desired to their own situation.

The ten tasks, and several sub-tasks, are listed.

Task 1: Identify and describe students and the related course. Sub-tasks are (a) organize the training group, (b) identify individual goals and objectives, (c) identify individual

needs and abilities, (d) formulate training goals.

Task 2: Identify and describe parent population

Task 3: Identify interests, problems and needs of parents. Subtasks are (a) interview parents to identify potential interests, needs and problems, (b) make a review of the literature, (c) utilize resources in the mass media, (d) identify appropriate adult education principles.

Task 4: Analyze available information

Task 5: Create an understanding of workshop procedures

Task 6: Organize for group action

Task 7: Develop workshop plan

Task 8: Simulate a workshop

Task 9: Conduct a real-life workshop

Task 10: Evaluate the learning experience

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Quality Education: Program Development of a Bilingual/Bicultural Teacher Endorsement at a Small Private College

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A bilingual/bicultural minor endorsement in teacher certification qualifies teachers as bilingual/bicultural instructors in the secondary and/or elementary schools. The basis for bilingual/bicultural programs can be traced back to the Bilingual Education Act, added as Title VII to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and amended in 1978 to add a cultural dimension.

As we move into the 80's bilingual/bicultural education is not only an educational necessity but also a legal one. Laws in Michigan require that if twenty children or more in a given school district have a mother tongue other than English, instruction in that tongue must be provided.

At Kalamazoo College approximately 35-40 people request certification every year; many of these have a major or minor in languages (Spanish, French, German) since the study of languages is a requirement at our school. It became apparent to the Education Department faculty that the establishment of a bilingual/bicultural program would enhance the opportunities for employment of their graduates who have such endorsement.

To incorporate new programs at a small college often extreme difficulties are encountered because of the risks involved: 1) only a small number of students are enrolled, 2) the department of education usually offers only a basic program which means a limited number of faculty, 3) financial success is minimal because of small enrollment. It therefore became apparent to make at least a part of this program (classes) interesting and available on an interdisciplinary basis.

The State Department of Education defines bilingual/bicultural instruction as the use of two languages, one of which is English, as media of instruction for speaking, reading, writing, comprehension. It also states that a bilingual/bicultural preparation program for new trainees, initial certificates, shall be a group minor of at least 24 semester hours (8 units), and for existing certificates a minimum of 18 semester hours (6 units). In order to fulfill the state requirements for a language component, cultural component, a methodology component as well as the needs of students at Kalamazoo College, the following was proposed:

1) Four language courses as determined by the language department.

2) A minimum of one culture course available in anthropology, sociology, history, and education departments.

3) One intercultural communication course.

4) One linguistics course.

5) English as a second language course.

To offer such a program, the following changes and additions needed to be made in the existing curriculum:

1) The current foreign language courses meet the requirements of the program because of their language skill development. Examinations will also be used to test the competence of students whose mother tongue is that of the endorsed language.

2) A variety of courses or approved seminars will provide the student with the specific cultural background.

3) The intercultural communication class serves a two-fold purpose in the program: 1) to create awareness and develop skills in utilizing cultural information in the communication process with members of a variety of cultural backgrounds, and 2) it is interdepartmental.

4) The linguistics course, already in place, fulfills the specific requirements as it helps to develop skills in linguistics analysis.

5) The class of English as a second language focuses on bilingual methodology. This class was not in place; cooperation of a nearby university (Western Michigan University) was sought and inter-institutional enrollment was available.

Fundamental Reform of Undergraduate Teacher Education: a Conversation

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Most of the current "reforms" of teacher education are trivial. Such changes as early field experiences, five year teacher preparation, and so forth are nothing more than minor variations on conventional teacher education programs. Generally such "reforms" keep all the traditional courses in place and merely add to or subtract from content/experiences in these courses. However, in recent years I have noticed more interest in making changes which might actually make a significant difference in teacher preparation. There is no particular pattern to these changes. Some involve totally field based programs in which public school personnel play a major role in determining the content of the program. Other changes involve building teacher education programs on new rationales, e.g., teaching conceived of as a moral craft (Tom, 1980), developing reflective teachers (Zeichner, 1980) and other approaches.

Frequently people who are interested in making basic changes in teacher education work in isolation from one another. They do not have people sympathetic to their ideas to stimulate their thinking. Neither do they have the opportunity to profit from the implementation experiences of other people engaged in making extensive reforms. The purpose of my session is to bring together people who have a common interest in revitalizing teacher preparation.

I will initiate the session by discussing our experience at Washington University when we tried to extensively rethink our programs. I will identify some of the problems which occurred when we tried to move from a campus-based series of education courses to a field-based semester and from a conception of teaching as an applied science to a conception of teaching as a moral craft. It is my hope that this discussion will stimulate others to compare their experiences with ours.

While the actual conversation will be relatively short and will only scratch the surface of possible discussion topics, I hope that the program can bring together a group of people who share a common interest and make it possible for these people to begin a long term relationship with one another.

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NCATE Accreditation: How, or Whether?

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Donald Steer, Assoc. Prof. of Education, University of Michigan

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) accredits professional programs at approximately 550 institutions (which prepare approximately 80% of American teachers and school support personnel). Descriptive material from NCATE was distributed (including benefits of NCATE accreditation and details of the accreditation process), with an annotated bibliography of recent literature related to NCATE.

A panelist whose institution had successfully hosted a reaccreditation visit this past year offered a number of specific suggestions for institutions planning to apply for accreditation or reaccreditation. These included becoming very knowledgeable about the standards and the accreditation procedures, beginning extensive involvement of faculty (and students and administrators) at least two years before the NCATE visit, and beginning early collection of documentation data. Faculty should be given very precise directions regarding completion of their data summary forms, with plenty of time to submit them. Colleagues from academic areas should be involved in preparing curriculum folios, utilizing guidelines from their professional associations. The writer of the institutional report should not be hired externally. Great care should be exercised in visiting team selection, especially the chairperson; don't hesitate to reject persons whom you feel aren't qualified for the assigned task. The team headquarters room should house the central materials collection (many suggestions were given for materials to be included). Organization of these materials keyed to appropriate sections of the report is very helpful. Work closely with the team chairperson in arranging the schedule of meals, meetings and accommodations while the team is on the campus. Assign appropriate faculty members to drive team members to and from the hotel, airport, and off-campus centers. Make certain that each faculty member is well informed regarding the team's schedule, as well as aspects of the program in which the team will be interested while on campus. Be sure to respond to the team report. A handout detailing the above and other suggestions was distributed.

A second panelist emphasized the importance of the role of the chief writer of the institutional report, advocating minimal involvement of other faculty members via committee structures in order to facilitate the operation. The institution's cost for its recent reaccreditation effort was estimated at about $46,000, in contrast to only $8,000 for the initial accreditation. About 400 copies of the institutional report were printed in order to provide for later requests from a variety of sources and for use in the next reaccreditation visit. A principal factor influencing the dean's decision to seek reaccreditation was the refusal of several local districts to hire graduates of non-NCATE accredited programs. Despite receiving only partial program approval, the self-study and visit was perceived to be advantageous to the institution.

The third panelist described the newly established interim visit procedure for which her insittution is now preparing. The fifth year after accreditation an interim visit will be scheduled. The institution's last report is updated, and a team of two or three persons visits to ascertain whether the program has maintained its quality and any previous weaknesses have been corrected. The Council will then act to either extend accreditation for three years beyond the initial seven (total ten years) or call for a complete evaluation by a full-sized team during the seventh year of the accreditation cycle.

Finally, the representative of a major institution seeking to decide wether to seek reaccreditation shared some of the questions they are considering. These questions related to (a) the appropriateness of NCATE standards as a basis for program improvement, (b) the desirability of supporting NCATE as the profession's accrediting agency, (c) the cost of seeking reaccreditation in terms of money, time, and energy, (d) the effect of accreditation on the institution's ability to attract students and resources, (e) the effect of accreditation upon program graduates, and (f) possibility of denial or partial denial. Reference was also made to a current national study by Wisconsin institutions designed to determine IHE perceptions of the value of NCATE accreditation, and any disadvantages which might affect graduates of programs not accredited by NCATE.

ED219381

BUILDING BRIDGES BETWEEN COLLEGES AND SCHOOL DISTRICTS
Focusing Questions

1. How can staff development interface effectively with preservice teacher education?
2. What can university and college personnel learn from inservice programs designed by public and private school personnel?
3. What programs exist that provide inservice training in areas that help teachers to supervise preservice teachers?
4. How can the potential of action research be enhanced as a result of collaboration between and among colleges and universities and public and private school personnel?
5. How can universities, colleges and school districts merge resources for better inservice and preservice training?
6. Are there specific skills in teaching adults which university and college faculty members can share with classroom teachers?

SP 020 581

Professional Relationships Between Teachers and Teacher Educators

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Since the preparation of teachers became primarily a function of institutions apart from the public schools an effective relationship between these institutions (and faculty) and the schools (and teachers) has been pursued. This courtship has not always been positive and seldom of mutual benefit. Most frequently in recent years the relationship has been constructed on an organizational basis, i.e. student teaching centers, teacher centers, and school improvement programs or through a consulting relationship in which a university professor serves as an expert for pay. Although thousands of schools have had cooperative arrangements which Colleges of Education few collaborate on long term research, development or school improvement projects (Drummond, 1978). In effect this condition perpetuates the low status of teacher education departments in universities and limits the capacity to obtain funds for research and development. An equal criticism is leveled at the public schools (Yates, 1971; Piele, 1975) for not utilizing more research and encouraging teachers to pursue development of research findings.

During recent years numerous articles and studies have been published which reflect the issues of; relationships, use of research and roles of teacher educators (Egan, 1979; Glaser, 1978; Massanari, 1978; Morrish, 1976; Pankratz, 1981; Piele, 1975). The concerns expressed by these authors are quite consistent and indicate that a different approach is needed to improve school-university relations, improve the utilization of research into practice, and improve the relationships between university and school faculty. However, such significant changes in roles. relationships and use of resources will take time. During this period of evolution various thrusts will be proposed and tested for viability. The basic concept in the proposals referred to is for the teacher educator to serve as a linking or chan agent and work with teachers by bring research studies to them and help utilize the results of these studies in their classrooms.

A somewhat different approach is proposed here in which university teacher educators and selected teachers employed in specific schools will provide an interface between the two institutions in a long term consortia basis (Schaefer, 1967). The focus of their mutual efforts will be threefold; instruction of preservice and inservice teachers, identification and description of educational problems, and the review and analysis of research studies to develop procedures and/or products which can be used to resolve these problems. A process for carrying out this problem identification and resolution has been described by Sanders (1981) and Dunn (1971) as developmental research. Putting the results of these efforts into some type of theoretical description will also benefit further research and development efforts (Bleth, 1969).

This change in focus from the linking/change agent concept to one of a mutual relationship focusing on educational problems should result in several positive outcomes; the establishment of a professional relationship between selected teachers and university teacher educators; the development of skill and knowledge among

this set of professionals based on a combination of practice and research which gives them greater credibility and provides the potential to improve the professional content of preservice and inservice instruction, and the development, over a period of time, of a stronger knowledge base for professional education based on this synthesis of practice and research. Further, school-university collaboration could create a commitment among those persons involved in university and school based teacher education to stimulate the development of a stronger profession.

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Basic Skills Assistance from College Faculty Participating in the Schools

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The underlying framework of the Basic Skills Assistance Program is a commitment to the joint involvement of both school and University personnel participating together in a local school. The underlying assumption is, that before more effective teaching and improved learning can be achieved, school personnel and teacher preparation faculty must be brought together to agree on the specifics of what is expected of students and these expectations must be directly linked with instructional materials, teaching strategies, tests used and report cards sent home to parents. The School-Based Assistance Team provides the school with assistance in the development, implementation and evaluation of a comprehensive basic skills curriculum emphasizing skills in mathematics and the basic communication skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening.

The content of the School Assistance Model is determined through the cooperative efforts of a planning group composed of Eastern Michigan University faculty, local building staff and parents. The local education agency provides input into the program by outlining the present and projected needs of their students in Basic Skills Instruction.

The implementation of the School Assistance Model is accomplished by a review of student expectations as defined by the building staff, using available support data. The University faculty assist with the statistical analysis of the available support data. Based on this summary and analysis they assist the building faculty in the design and implementation of project activities. These activities may include a review of the structure of the content areas, a study of the adequacy of the instructional materials, a revision of report card format or workshop and seminar sessions.

Since the report is on a program in progress, the outcomes of the first year of involvement with the two schools can be described as bridges to future activities in the interaction. Among the outcomes are the establishment of rapport and trust between college faculty and school teachers and administrators, the development of communication linkages between the field site and the University programs, and the recognition and communication of the capability and limitations of all participants in the shared experience program.

The Impact of a Year-Long Program Upon Student Teachers and Local School Staff

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Saginaw Valley State College and Bangor Township Schools have developed a year-long program in which the elementary methods courses and the student teaching experience are integrated throughout the school year. The methods courses are taught by both college and public school personnel and involve extensive and closely supervised field experiences. The program, which is designed for greater involvement of public school teachers and administrators and college instructors, is based on four major concerns:

1) *increasing teachers functional knowledge of human development;*
2) *helping teachers become more creative, self-confident, and sensitive facilitators of learning;*
3) *helping students utilize their strengths to achieve success and to overcome weaknesses; and*
4) *developing, in all of the participants, a strong commitment to the value of each human being.*

The program includes experience with handicapped children who are being mainstreamed, and, as an elective, an intensive five week (five hours per day) experience in a diagnostic clinic/summer enrichment program for children who are having difficulty learning in the classroom environment.

Although the program is essentially a pre-service teacher training program, it has had a positive impact on the public school faculty as an in-service activity, and reflects the Bangor Public School philosophy that teacher training is an integral part of their function as a public school.

In terms of the sub-themes of the ATE workshop, the organization and content of the program (sub-theme II), by being structurally linked to a public school system (sub-theme III), inevitably has an impact on the professional development of the public school staff (sub-theme IV). It also has a profound effect on the college instructors as well, for it involves them in continuous interaction with school children and public school teachers and administrators.

Promoting Classroom Teachers' Action Research Skills

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Curriculum and Foundations

This report presents the strategies and results of an organized effort by teacher educators at The University of West Florida to encourage the faculty and the community of a rural school to attack classroom, school and community problems through research.

The Setting

Through the auspices of a Teacher Corps Project (1978), The University of West Florida joined the Okaloosa District Teacher Center, Okaloosa County, Florida, in targeting the Baker School as an area warranting special efforts. A school and community needs assessment was completed which revealed specific school and community problem areas.

A university team was organized to work with county and school officials and members of the newly formed Community Council to plan activities, programs and graduate courses which would prepare the faculty and community to attack their own problems. A two-year graduate program was implemented at Baker School. In addition to performing traditional course assignments, participants met course objectives by directing a comprehensive school/community self-study, organizing the school curriculum (scope and sequence), and by planning and implementing research aimed at meeting school and community needs.

The Program

The academic program was designed to provide experiences and activities through three major avenues: core courses, seminars/independent study, and an area of specialization which included the action research project. All core course work was completed during the initial year of the program. During these courses the group acquired general skills and determined individual needs, student needs, and teaching/learning needs.

By the beginning of the second year, individual and small groups had determined the specific areas of school, classroom and personal needs to be studied. Specific seminars and directed studies were formulated and faculty research advisors were assigned. These advisors directed and encouraged individuals in acquiring skills needed in preparing and implementing individual specialization projects identified as Action Research. All projects were aimed at solving previously identified personal, classroom, school, and/or community problems.

The Research Prospectus

Participants were given group instruction and assistance in preparing themselves for action research. A guide, "Action Research Prospectus" was prepared by each degree program participant and was approved by the research advisor, the principal,

and the project director. This guide required students to: 1) define their problem in an attackable form, 2) outline the procedures suggested for solution of the problem, 3) identify the references and resources they would need, 4) establish the timeline they would follow to implement their project, and 5) select the strategies and tests required to assess their progress/results. Once the prospectus was approved, participants were encouraged to provide progress reports and to meet regularly with their research advisor.

The Research Seminar

A research seminar was held during the first term of the second year to provide participants with personal and group assistance in organizing and planning research strategies. Each participant presented plans and reacted to others comments and suggestions. This seminar encouraged participants to carefully analyze and clearly communicate their plans. Group members were encouraged to question the reasoning behind each others plans and to suggest "better" ways and/or anticipated results based on their knowledge of specific situations. This activity both sharpened individual thinking and promoted collective understanding of the roles each was playing in attempting to meet school and community needs.

Nature of Research

The nature of each individual's research varied with the specific needs of the individual in his/her work setting. Those whose work settings were outside of the target school dealt with improving community and parental involvement in the education of youth and community members. One project sought to increase attendance at school-community meetings and to bring community resources into the school. Another sought to bring the parents of preschool age children into training sessions on ways to improve parenting and school readiness.

The majority of in-school projects dealt with improving pupil performance in reading, writing, values clarification, personal and group problem solving, concept development, cultural awareness, and academic skill development. Some projects utilized materials and strategies that had been tested and reported through educational literature. Others designed, implemented and evaluated strategies and materials to solve specific problems for which no answers had been previously researched.

The Results

Desirable immediate results, of a provable nature, were acquired in most areas of the majority of projects. Most importantly, these new researchers took pride in what they were attempting. Immediate failures were viewed as an indication that new or different strategies or materials would be needed in the future. This reaction is in direct contrast with the feelings typically expressed by teachers relevant to educational research. Where previously research was viewed as remote and impractical, it was now viewed as very practical and, more importantly, attackable by teachers.

Conclusion

Teacher educators can design and implement graduate degree programs which recognize the importance of research done by classroom teachers and can support and assist classroom teachers in doing that research. When classroom teachers do research relative to classroom, school and community problems they see its value and relevance.

The National Center on Teaching and Learning

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The National Center on Teaching and Learning (NCTL) at Eastern Michigan University is new--it is not yet one year old. It is just beginning to develop programmatic initiatives that will shape its form and function. It is anticipated that NCTL will be in a planning-development mode for the next two to three years. The original notion for a national center was conceived by Dr. John Porter, former Michigan Superintendent of Public Instruction, current President of EMU, in response to his concern regarding the efficacy of educator training (both pre-service and inservice) provided by colleges and universities, and the calibre of instruction in public schools, as each affects teacher performance and student achievement and employability. With the support of the Mott Foundation, NCTL began its first year of operation on October 1, 1980. EMU's Board of Regents formally approved its creation on January 28, 1981.

The National Center on Teaching and Learning has a three-fold mission: (1) reforming teacher education, (2) building effective schools, and (3) schooling for employability. The knowledge technologies, encompassing telecommunications and computer science, permeate NCTL's mission.

Teacher Education. Where teacher education is concerned, the focus of activity is on collaboration between EMU and local school districts and their schools. Already NCTL is actively involved with twenty-two schools in nineteen districts. Also a Teacher Education Council, including representatives from the schools and EMU, across disciplines, serves as an advisory board to NCTL. This past year, it has concentrated on an intensive examination of the current Teacher Education curriculum.

Effective Schools. The hub of NCTL activity centers on improving the schooling process. Building on another EMU research project involved with identifying effective schools within the state of Michigan, NCTL is initiating a model-building/demonstration effort beginning this Fall with a symposium revolving around the nineteen schools that have been identified. In addition, this past year NCTL instituted the School-Based Assistance Team approach, which focuses on basic skills development in local schools through the on-site involvement of assistance teams made up of university faculty working with teachers.

Employability. The relevancy of the schooling process in preparing students for the world of work is also a major area of concentration in NCTL. This includes both the entry of high school graduates into the work force, and the placement of teacher education graduates in education-related occupations outside of schooling. NCTL is in the process of establishing a Corporate Council with representatives from both business and labor, to serve in an advisory capacity. The Council's primary task will be to help identify means to strengthen and solidify the education-work connection.

Technology. NCTL is beginning to incorporate the knowledge technologies through a program geared to the professional development of school and university faculty members. The I.E.P.'s for Educators program concentrates on

the establishment of a university-based computerized instructional program for the individual teacher-learner, where the instructor serves as a guide rather than in the traditional teaching mode. It is designed to cultivate new instructional roles and teaching strategies in the educating process, that capitalize on the use of the knowledge technologies in critical content areas. The interpersonal-interactive aspects of the teaching-learning process remain with the instructor and learner.

Organizationally, the National Center on Teaching and Learning will consist of five institutes--one on preschool education, one on elementary education, on secondary education, on basic skills, and on professional development--encompassing learning over the life span. A unique aspect of its operation is the reliance on a number of advisory councils representing the various constituencies involved with and influenced by the efforts of NCTL.

Personnel Development: Establishing a Dialectic Between the Public Schools and Higher Education

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When Public Law 94-142 (The Education of All Handicapped Children Act) was passed, it directed states not only to provide a "free appropriate public education" for handicapped children, but also to establish a comprehensive system of personnel development. The system was to include procedures for assessing the needs of all school personnel engaged in the education of handicapped children and initiate inservice programs to meet the identified needs. In addition, the regulations called for states to assess the capacity of higher education to respond to those needs. The impact of the law upon continuing professional development has been a major focus of 94-142 implementation.

In Indiana, special attention was given to how this need for continuing education might lead to more cohesive and complementary activities both within and between higher education and local schools. What resulted was a commitment to accomplish this with the input and collaboration of those constituencies which have needs for personnel development as well as those which have resources available to meet those needs. The Indiana Comprehensive System of Personnel Development (CSPD) Project was thus funded to design and implement a planning system whereby college and university faculty, local education agenices, and the state education agency could become involved in assessing and meeting the needs of the various personnel who work with handicapped children in the schools.

The core of the planning model is the computerized CSPD Database, designed to link field-identified needs with higher education resources. The Database has several key features in its design which are germane to issues regarding the building of bridges between higher education and the schools. First, the Database consists of an item pool of competencies representing those thought important to working with handicapped children and their families. This common pool is utilized in the construction of local needs assessments as well as in the survey of faculty resources. Simple matching procedures provide local schools with information regarding resources in institutions of higher education for their inservice programs. More importantly, however, higher education curriculum planners have available to them the perceived training needs of particular personnel for consideration in their review of their professional preparation programs and continuing education offerings.

Secondly, the information collected from both local school personnel and faculty can be arrayed in terms of specified training formats. Local school people indicate their preferences for training with regards to demographics (time, place, incentives, etc.); faculty respond regarding their ability to deliver particular formats (awareness training, skill-building, supervision, consultation, etc.).

Finally, another key feature of the Database is its interdisciplinary focus. Assessments of faculty expertise are drawn not only from teacher education, but from departments that prepare related service personnel, as well: nursing, social, educational psychology, physical therapy, etc. In addition, faculty from departments whose areas of interest might assist teachers and administrators are also included, such as sociology, speech communication, and business. Two results occur: one, departments have knowledge regarding the continuing education needs of those they train in their professional training programs; two, identification of gaps and complementary areas of expertise across campus(es) occurs to facilitate more collaborative planning and instruction.

Indiana has yet to achieve the degree of reciprocity that the CSPD Database represents. However, its design helps bring into focus some of the issues that must be addressed by both higher education and the local schools concerning the professional development of educators:

1) The incapacity of higher education to modify its curricula in the face of field needs.

2) The exclusion of higher education from the design and substance of inservice, exemplified by the rejection of theory and reserach in local inservice efforts.

3) The false distinction between inservice and perservice training rather than planning from a perspective of life-long professional development.

4) The need to validate the substance of professional development in child change data.

5) The isolation of teacher education from other disciplines.

LIAISON MODEL OF INSERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMS

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The purpose of the Regular Educator Inservice Program and the Special Education Inservice Program is to help Instructional Resource Center (IRC) and local educational agencies (LEA) develop and implement inservice, credit/noncredit programs that meet the needs of educators and regular educators working with handicapped youngsters in urban, suburban and rural areas, and which are responsive to the mandates of Public Law 94-142 and the Ohio Comprehensive System for Personnel Development (CSPD). In order to fulfill this purpose a liaison model was developed. The liaison model is both a communications and working (functional) model to foster needs assessment, plan and design of inservice training, implementation of inservice programs, evaluation and dissemination between the University, IRC and LEA's. The liaison also fosters communication with national projects and agencies such as National Inservice Network, Evaluation Consortium, Council for Exceptional Children, inservice projects from other states and specific local inservice programs. The staff function as liaisons between University departments, IRC, LEA, and the State Office serving a 22 county area in Northwestern Ohio.

Evaluation procedures indicated three types of inservice programs which require uniquely different need assessments, program planning and design, program implementation, and evaluation procedures. These three types of inservice programs are: Building Based, LEA Based, and Broad Based.

Building Based is an inservice program held with a single building focused on teaching staff. Typically, it is highly localized providing services over an extended period of time to the same group of training recipients. The recipient group is actively involved in the needs assessment process. The identified needs are used in planning and developing the inservice training. The planning and developing inservice training is carried out by the recipient group with assistance from the liaison and an IRC staff member. The inservice transactions are characterized by recipient group applications of training principles and procedures to resolve locally targeted problems.

LEA Based is a county/city system-wide inservice program. It is typically a functioning system of school districts banded together or a single district which focuses on a system-wide educational need. Needs assessment are usually carried out through a self-defined process involving a "needs assessment team." This assessment team is usually composed of representatives of the cooperating member LEA, a liaison person, and a staff member from the IRC. In most cases, representatives from the system are familiar in working with one another and may share common interests and goals. In other cases where it is countywide, the

representatives of cooperating members LEAs (school districts within the county) are not familiar as working patterns. Based on the results of the needs assessment, the inservice program is planned. Usually, the county-city system is heavily involved in all phases of planning, developing, and arranging inservice transactions. The liaison person along with the IRC staff member collaborates on the planning, developing, and arranging of inservice transactions. The inservice programs are usually long-range in nature and comprise both a "didactic" and "trainee work" types of training.

Broad Based is a region-wide inservice program. It is typically based on either the IRC needs assessment survey or the needs assessment survey conducted by the Office of Extensions in Continuing Education. The inservice programs are then planned and carried out either by the IRC staff and the liaison staff or by the liaison staff and the Office of Extensions in Continuing Education. The inservice transactions, which are offered, address broad needs and are usually "didactic" in nature and have a practicum component. Programs on broad-based inservice programs, such as this, are usually needed because of a dispersed population such as school counselors, school administrators, and school psychologists.

Evaluation of the design and implementation of inservices indicated that those programs which reflected the results of the needs assessments; had both Faculty and Practitioners as teachers, and went beyond mere awareness information were successful from a participant point of view. Pre and Post-test evaluations on programs impact on participants were and are being developed to measure knowledge and competencies. Results have indicated significant gains by participants. Other evaluation techniques are being developed. These are observation, "handicapped student learning rate changes" and measures of affect domain. Files are, also, kept and analyzed on each program activity to determine the parameters of effective inservice programs within each category: Building Based, LEA Based, and Broad Base.

University-School District Collaboration: The Eastern Michigan University Professional Development Program

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In the process of developing this unique program, Eastern Michigan University in collaboration with the Taylor School District Staff Development Program has conceptualized a program and delivery system formulated upon the following three basic assumptions:

1. The individual building or program area within a school district is the largest single unit where a professional development program can be established to facilitate change and improvement in the teaching and learning process.

2. Any professional development activity begins with a Needs Assessment focused primarily on the professional needs of teachers.

3. A professional development activity is the result of collaborative efforts between local district personnel, the teacher's union, the intermediate school district and the University.

The major goal of the program is to assist individual school buildings and/or programs to develop, implement and evaluate a plan for the professional development of the teachers in that building or program. Specific objectives which are designed to facilitate that process in each building/program are as follows:

1. Professional development committees will be formed at the school building and/or department level to include teachers, appropriate administrative staff, parents, and University personnel. Local teachers will constitute a majority of the membership of these committees. (51%).

2. Each cooperating district plan will provide for teacher election/selection of their representatives on the building level committees.

3. Each cooperating district plan will incorporate a district building and/or department Needs Assessment.

4. Each cooperating district, building and/or department, will develop specific operating goals based upon the district professional development needs, as determined by the local building or department staff.

5. Each cooperating district program will include an opportunity or provision for the participation of preservice teachers dependent upon the availability of preservice teachers.

6. Each cooperating district will present an evaluation plan designed to measure the achievement of program objectives.

These goals are used, in sequential order, to establish and implement the professional development programs in the participating school districts.

Ownership is the key factor of the program. Each person affected by a decision is an active participant in the decision making process. Within the seventeen school districts in a five county area there are currently twenty-six professional development programs being implemented at the building or department level. Each program is distinct and different. Each program goal has instructional strategies and evaluation techniques responsive to the local situation, as perceived by the participants themselves.

A University/School District Program to Promote Quality Inservice Training of K-12 Teachers of Writing

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A decline in the level of basic writing skills of students, elementary school grades through college, has been widely publicized and discussed in recent years. Major national news magazines, such as Time and Newsweek, have featured scathing reports on teaching, and much of their criticism has been aimed at the teaching of writing. Nationally several projects, such as the Bay Area Writing Project, have been initiated to improve writing skills. One of the strongest reaffirmations of commitment to quality in writing instruction in Wisconsin schools is the Wisconsin Writing Project (WWP). A cooperative planning, training, and inservice delivery model to improve the teaching of writing at all levels of schooling, the WWP has been developed by eighteen school districts and the University of Wisconsin-Madison School of Education, Department of Curriculum and Instruction; the College of Letters and Science, Department of English; the Wisconsin Improvement Program; the University of Wisconsin-Extension; the Wisconsin Native American Teacher Corps; with partial funding from the National Endowment for the Humanities through the University of California-Berkeley.

The Wisconsin Writing Project features institute training of teacher consultants, team approaches to inservice, inservice support groups, joint funding strategies, teacher development of inservice programs and printed material. More than twenty district programs with variations have been field tested to improve and disseminate strategies for teaching writing. This University and K-12 cooperative project has been well received, and the potential for improvement of writing competence among Wisconsin students seems promising.

The basic assumptions underlying the WWP are that:

1. there is concern throughout Wisconsin that schooling needs to address itself to improving students' composition skills.

2. there is strong interest in improving writing curriculum and instruction at the elementary, middle, and high school levels.

3. teachers who examine, research, analyze current knowledge and exchange their own experiences can grow and influence their colleagues.

4. successful teachers of composition can be prepared through an intensive summer institute to provide inservice programs in their own and other school districts.

5. with the cooperation of school administrators and teachers, continuing education programs can be designed to meet the needs of schools requesting inservice work in teaching composition.

A project advisory committee composed of public school administrators, public school teachers, University of Wisconsin-Madison faculty members, and a representative of the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, guides the development and implementation of the WWP.

After four years of operation, the WWP has trained over 100 selected public school teachers to share strategies to improve student writing with their colleagues from elementary through high school levels. For the past four summers, teams of teachers (one elementary, one middle, one high school) from over 35 school districts participated in four week institutes offered for graduate credit. At the institutes, teachers researched and exchanged strategies for teaching writing. They polished their own composition skills by completing individual writing assignments as well as group projects. Over the years, they have developed writing guides which cover writing topics by presenting practical classroom applications and basic information as well as current research. The guide topics become the basis for inservice programs which are custom designed for school districts by WWP Coordinators and school district inservice committees. Inservice participants have been enthusiastic about the programs, and have reported favorable results when using recommended strategies to teach writing to students.

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PROFESSIONAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Focusing Questions

1. What kinds of skills do teachers need to have in order to effectively share their expertise with other teachers?
2. Are prototypes available to assist in the design of inservice workshops?
3. How are reassigned teachers being helped to transfer generic skills to different grade levels and subject areas?
4. What are the most important areas of teacher need?
5. What delivery systems have been designed to assist teachers in designated areas of need? (For example: motivation, stress and time management.)
6. How do teachers develop a positive attitude toward staff development?
7. What kinds of staff development should take place at universities and colleges?
8. What problems in communication can occur between the initial step of needs assessment and the matching of an appropriate delivery system to fulfill the identified need?
9. What kind of impact does professional development make toward the quality and quantity of students' learning?

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Professional Development Needs of Michigan Educators

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Fran Brandi, Staff Development Facilitator, Taylor Schools

In August, 1979, the Michigan Legislature appropriated $3.2 million for Professional Staff Development and Career Education Inservice activities. Each local and intermediate school district was entitled to a certain amount of this allocation based upon the number of professional staff and assurances that they had met certain requirements. Included in these requirements were the establishment of a policy board, the majority of whom are teachers, and a needs assessment of the professional staff in each district.

By February 15, 1980, approved programs were also required to submit to the Office of Professional Development, a list of their ten top needs. The analysis of the 1979-80 results was done for 51 different programs of the 130 approved for funding. These 130 programs represented 95% of the state's professional staff. The three top needs were discipline, motivation, and educating the gifted.

Applications for funding during 1980-81 also required a listing of the ten top needs that had most recently been identified by each program. The analysis of 1980-81 data was done on 109 of the 125 programs approved for funding. This analysis showed discipline, stress, and student motivation as the top three needs. Since more complete data was reported in the 1980-81 applications, we were able to break down the frequency distribution into the ranking of importance for each of the top ten needs. Examination of the weighted frequencies reveals a shift in only the top three needs. In this case, stress becomes the top priority with motivating students and discipline following respectively.

We recognize the unscientific nature of this study and present this discussion with the limitations of not having a common assessment procedure and other related problems well in mind. No conclusions will be stated and we caution about making generalizations based on these data.

Obviously the results of any set of teacher perceived needs is biased by the kinds of questions to which persons are asked to respond. A concern for the validity of the questions used in any needs assessment must be raised. Questions like: "How are the questions used for needs assessment determined?" "Who should specify the criteria for generating questions for needs assessments?" and "What are the true needs of teachers?" are worthy of consideration.

Teacher Performance Assessment Instruments: A "Personalized" Approach To Staff Development

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In the spring of 1976, the Georgia Department of Education contracted with the College of Education of the University of Georgia to produce minimum competency assessment instruments which could be used to provide performance criteria for certifying teachers. The Teacher Assessment Project was subsequently organized and charged with the responsibility of designing and developing the Teacher Performance Assessment Instruments (TPAI).

These instruments are designed to determine the degree to which teachers can demonstrate selected generic competencies, which research surveys and members of the Georgia teaching profession defined as essential to effective professional performance. As a result of these efforts, 14 competencies were identified and divided into three major areas: Teaching Plans and Materials, Classroom Procedures and Interpersonal Skills. Because generic competencies are generalizations and, therefore, too broad for assessment, each competency consists of a series of performance indicators with correlated descriptors which identify the quality of a teacher's performance. Descriptors are sentence-length statements and are scored on a scale of 1 to 5.

Teaching Plans and Materials focuses on competencies that relate to the preparation of instruction (planning, selecting and writing objectives and choosing and using instructional and evaluation materials). Classroom Procedures relates to preparing for instruction and focuses on planning and teaching methods and techniques, cognitive interaction with learners and classroom management. Interpersonal Skills concentrates on proficiency in creating a comfortable social atmosphere, demonstrating warmth and friendliness and communicating concern.

After teachers are assessed by three independent data collectors and results are compiled, a computerized performance profile is generated which identifies teacher deficiencies. Teacher profiles are then used by faculty members of the Department of Professional Laboratory Experiences at the University of Georgia as the basis for developing a "personalized" in-service program. Once the profiles are analyzed and a master schedule is developed (a matrix which identifies all competencies, by participant, that need strengthening), in-service activities are conducted in which the goals and objectives of the program are defined, computerized profiles are reviewed and individual learning styles are discussed. At the conclusion of teacher conferences, a "personalized" staff development portfolio complete with a class

meeting schedule, competencies to be addressed, instructional activities and correlated materials to be used to remediate identified weaknesses as well as names and addresses of his/her resource teacher and university professor is developed and provided to each participant. Learning activities and instructional materials are designed to meet each teacher's need and correspond to his/her unique learning style. Instructional activities such as video taping, classroom observation, films and tape recording, journal articles, individual and group seminars, outside consultants and student evaluation instruments are written into each individual schedule to facilitate teacher progress in strengthening identified deficiencies.

At the conclusion of staff-development activities, teachers are again assessed on the TPAI and are recycled through another "personalized" program on an as-needed basis. Competency for certification is determined by teacher performance at 75% efficiency on all fourteen competencies.

Instructional Skills for Effective Teaching

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Waterford School District

Current research in teacher effectiveness consistently points to eight basic findings. These findings are:

1) Clarity of teacher presentation makes a difference in student achievement

2) Classrooms characterized by a high degree of structure make a difference in improved student achievement

3) The amount of time allotted and spent on instruction makes a difference in student achievement

4) Teachers who are supportive and use positive feedback or reinforcement make a difference in student achievement

5) Student recitation promotes greater achievement gains

6) Accurate predictions of student performance makes a difference in higher student achievement

7) The prescription of appropriate learning tasks for each student based upon predictions makes a difference in higher student achievement

8) Correction, or the use of timely, supplemental instruction makes a difference in higher student achievement.

The Waterford Instructional Skills Program, in Waterford, Michigan is an in-service teacher training program that reflects these findings, as well as the findings of Dr. Madeline Hunter at the University lab school at U. C. L. A. WISP is structured around four "essential elements of instruction:" 1) selecting objectives at the correct level of difficulty; 2) teaching to an objective; 3) monitoring student progress and adjusting the teaching; and 4) using the principles of learning.

This training program is designed to help teachers and administrators study and improve classroom teaching techniques. A typical WISP training cycle includes instruction in all of the following areas:

Teaching to an Objective
Formulating an Objective
Task Analysis
Active Participation
Diagnosis
Extending Students' Thinking
Motivation
Reinforcement
Retention
Practice Theory
Lesson Design
Anticipatory Set
Closure Technique

Typically, teachers and principals attend the training over a five or six week period. One day per week is set aside for the workshop presentations, activities and discussions. The remainder of the week is for participants to return to their classrooms to practice the elements of an instruction they have previously learned. Also, each week during the training, teachers are observed in their classrooms practicing the application of the essential elements of instruction. Principals attend these observations with their teachers. After the observation, each teacher discusses with a trainer and principal specific strengths and weaknesses of the lesson that was observed. Being able to analyze lessons with specificity and common terminology allows for a more accurate application of research findings appropriate to each teaching situation. During this presentation details on how this program has been implemented will be presented, and time will be set aside for questions and answers.

A Supervisory Model for Individualized Professional Staff Development

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The Interaction/Intra-action Supervisory Model contains three distinct segments. Segment I explores the communication and interaction, as well as the goal and performance clarity, between the teacher and the supervisor. The self analysis and appraisal each undertakes are also addressed. Segment II deals with a unique approach for analyzing teachers' professional growth needs as a function of personal needs and role expectations. Segment III presents a framework for designing appropriate professional growth programs based on identified teacher needs. The integration of the three segments into one cohesive model emphasizes the flow from analysis of performance to the identification of growth needs which results in the designing of appropriate professional growth programming.

The model has served as the basis for analyzing two studies. These studies were undertaken to ascertain: (a) elementary school teachers' perceptions of their msot important professional development needs; (b) teachers' preferences to have these needs met; (c) principals' perceptions of their teachers' professional development needs; and (d) principals' perceptions of how teachers would prefer to have these needs met.

The results of these two studies indicate some of the thoughts teachers have about professional development needs, how to meet these needs, and how teachers' perceptions compare with those of their principals. These results can be used to validate certain aspects of Segment III of the proposed model.

Future use of this model by staff development practitioners and researchers may include specific strategies and further research to validate the theory. Some of these strategies might include improving teachers' competence in self-analysis and self-appraisal, improving supervisors' ability to analyze teacher performance in a multi-resource approach, improving the identification of actual teacher growth needs, or applying the development model to vertical stages of life-span maturation.

Possible future research projects might include a study of the congruency of teachers and supervisors on role definition, on description of performance, or on program value and effectiveness. Characteristics of teachers and supervisors who relate positively to model components could be studied and described. Finally, even the overall appropriateness of professional growth programs for teachers could be researched.

In summary, the Interactive/Intra-active Supervision Model is a dynamic model for supervisors and teachers to determine a program of effective professional staff development. This model combines the perceptions and expectations of supervisors and teachers with actual classroom behavior to determine growth needs. The professional growth program is developed from these identified needs as a function of personal needs and role expectations. This model is an elaboration of the emerging concept of individualized or personalized plans for teacher professional growth. The model is to be used by teachers and supervisors to cooperatively plan a program of professional development or renewal. Specific attention is given to the problems of moving from needs assessment to appropriate delivery systems, as well as the problems of effective communication and developing positive attitudes toward staff development.

REASSIGNED TEACHERS PROJECT

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The reassigned Teachers Project (formerly the Support/Retraining Reassigned Teachers Project) is a comprehensive program to meet the needs of teachers who are reassigned to new grade levels and/or subject areas for which they have not had recent training and/or experience. The program was developed and piloted in five Oakland County school districts (Berkley, Birmingham, Ferndale, Oak Park, and Southfield), north of Detroit.

The project is the result of a collaborative effort of master teachers with input from Oakland Schools, local administrators, and Oakland University. The program is based on current research and theories in instruction, classroom management, stress, change, helping skills, and adult learning, which have been synthesized to meet the immediate needs of reassigned teachers.

Central to the program is the support a helping teacher, called a Peer Facilitator, can provide in workshop settings and/or on a one-to-one basis. Peer Facilitators received training in the aforementioned theoretic and research areas to sharpen their skills and to prepare themselves to work with reassigned teachers. During these training sessions Peer Facilitators develop materials to share with reassigned teachers. A Peer Facilitator handbook and units/materials to begin the school year are available through the project to assist Peer Facilitators in their new role.

As a result of this training Peer Facilitators conduct workshops for reassigned teachers. In these workshops reassigned teachers are helped to deal with the effects of change in their professional and personal lives as well as preparing for the immediate day to day tasks of teaching. The format includes both cross grade level sessions and special sessions for K-1, 2-3, 4-5, middle school, junior high, and high school.

During and after the workshops Peer Facilitators are available to provide individual assistance to reassigned teachers in their districts. Since reassigned teachers come to their new assignments with unique skills based on their past experiences they often have diverse needs that cannot be fully addressed in workshop sessions. Peer Facilitators working cooperative and collegially with reassigned teachers make plans to deal with these individual concerns.

An additional component focuses on the informal support that administrators and nonreassigned teachers can provide reassigned teachers. The project has found that reassigned teachers have a limited amount of time to learn their area and to deliver instruction. The help of others in the school can make this job more reasonable. The project has developed awareness sessions to help teacher/administrators understand the effects of change on people and in particular, on teachers when reassigned. A handbook has been developed to alert administrators to some of the potential problems for reassigned teachers.

This project is currently funded as a Michigan dissemination projec

Stress Relievers
by

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Tension! Burn Out! Stress! Nervousness! Anxiety! Insomnia! These are the words in the headlines, book titles and the topic of conversation everywhere. James Hassett in the August 1978 issue of Psychology Today said, "Our national blood pressure statistics are clearly associated with a competitive, stressful society whose members, even at play, find it difficult to unwind.

Stress has been a concern to educators for the last several years. Three years ago the authors developed a fourteen item forced choice Q-sort on stress factors affecting teachers. They began data collecting with the participants at an ATE workshop. The findings from this and other workshops during the last three years have been remarkably similar for all educators. Of the fourteen items, Time Management, Individualized Instruction, Decision Making, Curriculum, and Pacing Your Energy were consistently ranked the five most stressful factors. The least stressful factors were accepting and using other people's expertise, maintaining good relationships with your supervisor and building a reputation. The results from the East Lansing administration of the same instrument indicates only the deceased are totally free of stress. Stress may be the fuel of life or the destroyer of life. In dealing with life's stressors it is important to maintain a balance to prevent insufficient or excessive stress. Many of today's educators suffer from high to excessive stress levels. Therefore, it is essential that every person in education learn to reduce the stressors that impact on their lives.

The workshop focused on three main areas: the identification of one's stressors, planning for reduction of stress and carrying out the plan.

The key to stress reduction is the identification of one's stressful areas. Secondly, a plan for reducing must be developed. Thirdly, the plan must be carried out faithfully as one recognizes the stressful situation developing. Specific stressors were identified by the workshop participants. The general suggestions for relieving these stressors were offered. Small groups were formed and assigned one factor which was to be identified by symptoms and suggestions for reducing the stress created by that factor. Following a discussion of the reports, general suggestions for relieving stress in any area was presented. Some of the most effective ones include:

1. Plan a time for relaxing and idleness or remove yourself from the stressful situation temporarily until you are relaxed again.
2. Take care of your physical needs: rest, exercise, balanced nutritious meals - eat leisurely. Savor your food.
3. Plan a vacation or trip which will allow a complete change from your regular life which is interesting to you and allows you to be free from tension.
4. Set realistic goals which means recognizing limits and abiding within these.
5. Allow anger to be dealt with. Restrained anger is very destructive to you, but handle it in such a way that you don't loose your friends in the process. Avoid people who habitually irritate you.
6. Sharing your problems with a caring confidant friend will allow many of them to disappear.
7. Also listen without interruption - be an "active" listener, able to respond or support an idea as necessary.
8. Plan, do and think of one thing at a time. Concentrate on it and complete it before going on to another.
9. Prioritize items to be done and take care of them in that order.

Keep these suggestions in mind and develop a plan for reducing your stress. With a positive attitude life will become smoother and the stress in your life lessened.

Participants were reminded that all people experience stress. Teachers have their own unique set of stress factors. Becoming aware of these factors in each person's life is a large part of the process. After awareness, plans for reducing are necessary. The above suggestions should aid all teachers in relieving stress in their life.

Preparing Teachers for Gifted, Talented and Creative Students

By: Dr. Yvonne Waskin
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The decade of the seventies saw a marked increase in interest in educating Gifted, Talented and Creative students. Spurred by parent groups and the prospects of funding, state agencies and local school districts across the nation began programs. The United States Department of Education established an agency for Gifted and Talented Education and funding was appropriated by the Congress. Despite economic constraints, the movement continues to grow.

The need for special attention for this segment of our school population is defended by educators and parents alike. They contend that these G/T/C students have been neglected too long. While continued support for the disadvantaged and the handicapped must be continued, it is in the best interest of society to provide our most capable students with the opportunities needed to realize their potential.

G/T/C students are described by the U.S. Department of Education as those having abilities, either potential or realized, in general intellectual ability, specific academic aptitudes, creative thinking, leadership ability and talent in visual and performing arts. Programs can be developed to focus on one or all of these areas. Most emphasis at present is devoted to students with high intellectual ability.

One critical issue related to this movement is that of preparing teachers to work with G/T/C students. Relatively few teachers are prepared because historically there has been no opportunity for study in this field. Teacher preparation insititutions need to provide courses at both the undergraduate and graduate level to meet this demand.

Michigan State University offers graduate courses leading to advanced degrees with emphasis on Educating Gifted, Talented and Creative Students, grades K-12. Many courses are offered off-campus in locations throughout the state. In cooperation with WKAR - TV which is a Public Broadcasting Station and Instructional Television, a series of ten thirty minute programs, "Teaching Gifted Students" was produced. Parents and educators can view the programs at home, and attend seminars offered in a central location and earn university credit.

This unique delivery system has proved to be popular and has demonstrated that educators need to search for appealing, innovative ways to disseminate educational information.

The need for educators knowledgeable in G/T/C education is immediate. Teacher preparation institutions need to meet the challenge of providing meaningful, relevant, quality professional development experiences to their constitutents.

Integrating Research and Practice in Teacher Education: The Michigan Teacher Educator Research Seminar

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The most casual perusal of literature on teacher preparation reveals that programs across the nation are more alike than different. Most rely upon modeling as a major mode of training and few take full advantage of the products of major research and development (R & D) efforts. It appears that while paying lip service to the goal of disseminating the results of R & D efforts in the interest of improved preparation and continued professional development our practice has been woefully inadequate.

Logically, researchers in education should play an increasingly important role in the development of the profession. In both psychological and sociological domains the knowledge base underlying educational practice has developed remarkably in the past few years. That researchers should play an important role in providing the knowledge base for educational change is clear. That there has been too little impact also is clear. The seminar described in this paper addresses the issue along two interrelated variables--the dissemination of educational knowledge and the development of linking networks of researchers and practitioners in teacher education programs.

The need for systematic development of people networks, support for the synthesis of knowledge, and effective dissemination based on accepted principles of communication and adoption of new knowledge is clearly indicated. The rejuvination of teacher education in the complex world may be more dependent on these three related areas of effective interpersonal communication than on any other single set of issues. The Michigan Teacher Educator Research Seminar is an attempt to address these issues through a collaborative relationship of teacher educators in Michigan. The twofold goal is to relate emerging research findings to practice in teacher education and to begin to develop informal linkages between teacher educators from different institutions in the state of Michigan.

Seventeen colleges and departments of teacher education in the state of Michigan and the Institute for Research on Teaching at Michigan State University have been cooperating throughout this academic year to sponsor a seminar on research in teaching and teacher education. The 29 participants, who were nominated by the dean of their school or college, were all practicing teacher educators who had expressed interest in further professional development and interaction with their colleagues.

The seminar was designed to provide opportunities for educators to become more aware of recent research and consider implications for current practice. The participants met in colloquia monthly with major researchers to examine a series of topics focusing on research efforts and other developments in areas related to the preparation and continued professional development of educators. During the year nine topics were presented by researchers.

Although outcomes the first year were limited, participants were enthusiastic about continuing for a second year. The seminar has served as a vehicle to improve the communication between researchers and teacher educators and has the potential to impact teacher education practice.

Summary of IRT Research Discussions

Janet Flegg, Institute for Research on Teaching

Classroom teachers, instructional supervisors, college and university faculty, teacher educators, and others came to Michigan State University in August to learn more about education. As participants in the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE)/Institute for Research on Teaching (IRT) Summer Workshop, "Quality Assurance in Teacher Education: Research Into Practice," they attended sessions on higher education and took part in workshops focusing on research on teaching.

The ATE presented 32 sessions reviewing current developments in teacher education. The sessions were grouped around four themes of quality assurance: (1) teacher candidate selection and evaluation; (2) preservice teacher education content, organization, and field experience; (3) building linkages between colleges and school districts; and (4) professional staff development.

The IRT sponsored four day-long, research-into-practice workshops, one each on the learner, the teacher, subject matter, and instructional settings. After the workshop coordinators reviewed research in their area of expertise, they engaged participants in discussions of how that research might be put into practice.

The Learner

Robert Eaker and James Huffman of Middle Tennessee State University presented research on the learner, concentrating on strategies useful to teachers and effective for students. They stressed that one method of teaching is not necessarily better than another, but rather that different teaching methods achieve different goals. Cooperative learning, for example, might be appropriate for fostering social development; for increasing time

on task, direct instruction might be appropriate.

Eaker and Huffman synthesize research on teaching. They look for patterns and generalizations across studies, and present what they find to teachers. Testing the research in the classroom, what Eaker and Huffman call "consumer-validating" it, is the teachers' responsibility.

Eaker and Huffman stressed the importance of organization and gave examples of things teachers might do to better organize their instruction. Research shows that teachers who specify learner outcomes and activities, give clear explanations, and teach in small, sequential units get their students to learn more than do teachers who don't do those things.

Eaker and Huffman also talked about research on teaching to specific objectives, teacher clarity, enthusiasm, and discipline, indicating where findings suggest strategies for good teachers to use, modify, and apply to their own classrooms.

In their own classrooms, teachers must face the realities of active children, a full curriculum, and the constraints of time and budgets--something their undergraduate education may not have prepared them for. "Methods classes may be leaving something out," said Eaker. "Students of teaching are educated, but not trained." Often primarily trial and error, training takes place mainly on the job.

Eaker and Huffman said that teachers generally find research helpful. "We don't solve problems," said Eaker. "We say we might raise their (teachers') batting average a little."

For more information on Eaker and Huffman's work, write to them at Box 457, Department of Youth Education and School Support Services, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee 37132.

The Teacher

Divided into two parts, the IRT workshop on research on the teacher covered the teaching of writing and teacher use of student-assessment data. IRT researchers Christopher Clark and Susan Florio informed participants about their research on children's acquisition of written literacy in schools, reporting several of their key findings:

"A wide variety of types of writing goes on in classrooms, only a small portion of which is part of the formal language arts or English curriculum. There are different sets of rules for evaluating and using the various types of writing by students. Often these different rules and criteria are not made explicit by the teacher."

"The social context of the classroom and the school play important parts in how much meaningful writing takes place. Teachers and administrators have a great deal of influence over how the social system gets established, including influence over expectations for writing, rewards and recognition for writing, grouping of students for writing projects, and in using writing as a way of participating in society beyond the four walls of the classroom."

"A teacher's own experience, self-concept, and ability as a writer himself or herself can make a big difference in how writing is taught, learned, and used. Teachers who actually use writing frequently as an important part of their own professional activity are in a strong position to be helpful to young writers."

A full report of Clark and Florio's research on writing will be available from the IRT early in 1982. For price and publication date information, write to Written Literacy Report, c/o IRT Publications, 252 Erickson Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824.

In the afternoon, Herbert Rudman and Donna Wanous had participants work with The Data Box, a tool for helping teachers make use of a variety of student assessment data, including standardized tests and previous grades.

A teacher uses The Data Box by first picking a vignette card. A typical vignette might be "Getting Ready to Meet the New Class." The vignette card asks the teacher such questions as, "What information might you use to better know your students before the first day of class?" and "How would you organize that information?" (In The Data Box are 37 documents, typically available to teachers, for use in answering these questions.)

After the teacher has responded to the questions in the vignette, s(he) turns to the vignette's corresponding section in the interpretive manual. The interpretive manual identifies the authors' approach to the questions and the rationales behind them. There's no one correct solution," said Rudman. "The important thing is that teachers have a good rationale for their responses." By working through the vignettes, teachers should become more familiar with the assessment materials available to them, better able to use them, and more confident about using them.

Each workshop participant was given an opportunity to work with The Data Box.

To find out more about The Data Box, write to Dr. Herbert C. Rudman, 405 Erickson Hall, College of Education, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824.

Subject Matter

Research on reading and language arts was presented by Laura Roehler and Gerald Duffy in the subject matter workshop. Participants then brainstormed about how to set up an inservice program using the information just presented.

First, the participants thought of some goals for their hypothetical inservice program, taking care to insure that those goals were realistic. For example, some goals, like "get better students," are unrealistic and of no use in directing an inservice program. They talked about how to assess

those goals, specified the goals more precisely, and discussed the context in which the goals were to be pursued.

This led to a lively discussion of what good teaching is and how that skill can be obtained. "Research shows that teachers take students through materials and monitor their progress, rather than explaining things," declared Roehler. Teachers frequently end up managing instruction instead of instructing. Duffy said that teachers seldom tell a child the cognitive process (s)he needs to know to do assignment. And teacher educators don't help prospective teachers with this. "No one tells you how to teach an idea, how to teach a kid to answer a question if (s)he doesn't know how," said Duffy.

For more information on Roehler and Duffy's research, write to them at the Institute for Research on Teaching, 252 Erickson Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824.

Instructional Settings

In this session, Lawrence Lezotte spoke about school improvement and effective schools research. He also talked about the school-improvement partnership between higher education and public schools.

"There has to be something in it for both parties," said Lezotte. So often higher education sees itself as a missionary, solving school problems and making things right. Unless there is some benefit for higher education in the partnership as well as for the schools, the partnership won't work well.

"Education is too dominated by psychology, not enough sociology," Lezotte said. "You can't treat the class as 28 disconnected kids; it is much more manageable to think of the class as 28 individuals, connected, cooperating." According to Lezotte, cooperative learning is one of the best strategies for instructional improvement.

Even more important than cooperation among students is cooperation among staff members. It is surprisingly difficult to find time for an entire school staff to talk together about only professional matters, Lezotte noted. As an example, he told about a principal who had to formally promise his staff not to talk about administrative matters during school improvement meetings.

The best method of getting research into practice to make schools more effective may not be moving research directly from the research institution to the schools, noted one participant. He suggested that teacher education may often be overlooked as a means of putting research into practice. He said that it was a very good means that should be made better use of.

Most of the participants, themselves teacher educators, seemed interested and eager not only to learn about research, but to think critically about it and apply it to their own work.

For more information about Lezotte's work on effective schools, write to him at 260 Erickson Hall, College of Education, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824.